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FINANCIAL PROSPECTS.

A FTER a year of compulsory inaction, Mr. Gladstone will once more resume the welcome duty of remodelling some part of the system of taxation. The increase of the revenue will probably supply a surplus of two millions, and an additional amount, at present only known to the Government, will arise from a probable diminution of expenditure. There is no sufficient reason for the reduction of the army or navy; but the enormous outlay on construction, which has swelled the Estimates for three or four years, is essentially temporary in its nature, and it must be supposed, in some degree, to have effected its legitimate purpose. If party interests are considered, the Government has strong motives for anticipating any factious combination which may be founded on the inchoate alliance of last Session between Mr. DISBAELI and Mr. COBDEN. The House of Commons will be more cordially disposed to maintain the national defences if the Ministers show that they have the means of effecting reductions without interfering with efficiency. A powerful army and navy have of late promoted cordial relations with France, and they afford the best security against a rupture with the captious Government of the United States. Soldiers and sailors are indispensable, but it cannot be necessary to be always creating a navy and inventing an artillery.

Although the amount of the surplus can only be vaguely conjectured, alternative plans of reducing taxation may be compared with advantage; but probably the choice will practically apply only to the tea and sugar duties, to the rate

Although the amount of the surplus can only be vaguely conjectured, alternative plans of reducing taxation may be compared with advantage; but probably the choice will practically apply only to the tea and sugar duties, to the rate of the Income-tax, and possibly to the duty on tobacco. After the lapse of five or six years, Mr. Gladstone will perhaps be content to discuss the question on its merits, without dilating on the supposed breaches of faith which were occasioned by the war of 1854. It may also be assumed that taxes will not be defended on the ground that their vexatious pressure produces a wholesome moral effect on a spendthrift community. Mr. Gladstone can display equal eloquence, with more persuasive power, in showing that any changes which he may propose will increase human happiness by the addition of material comforts, rather than by any indirect operation on the conscience and character. The alleged benefits which would arise from a modification of the tobacco duty are almost exclusively fiscal, for the artificial price of the commodity can scarcely be said to involve scrious hardships. No financier is more competent than Mr. Gladstone to judge whether the present arrangement of the duties is the most productive which could be devised; but in cheapening necessaries and luxuries, it would be desirable to give the preference to articles which are even more universally consumed than tobacco. As the peculiarities of the brewing trade render it doubtful whether a diminution of the malt tax would be practically expedient, tea and sugar stand first in the order of reduction among the indirect taxes; and if the Charcellor of the Exchequen has four millions to spare, he will probably concede the reduction which was proposed two years ago by the Opposition as more desirable than the abolition of the paper duty. No measure would be more beneficial to the bulk of the community, and the loss imposed on the revenue would soon be partially replaced. The immediate sacrifice of a million and a half of tea duty wo

million and a half of tea duty would probably still leave a considerable balance over expenditure.

No class of tax-payers has so strong a claim on the justice of Government as the contributors to the Income-tax. Since the failure of his first attempt to abolish the impost, and of his attack upon the Ministry which maintained the original rate after the war, Mr. Gladstone has taken evident pleasure in laying the heaviest possible burdens on the owners of real and personal property. By incessantly varying the rate of axaation, he has weakened to the utmost of his power the arguments against readjustment, and he has for two years appeared to regard the present percentage as the ordinary and perma-

nent rate of taxation. It may be collected from his speeches that he still believes in the justice, if not in the possibility, of abolishing the tax altogether, for the purpose of reserving it as an extraordinary resource for war or other national difficulties. In the meantime, he seems to consider that an unavoidable evil may as well be stretched as far as possible for the benefit of the revenue. In the last year, the tax of ninepence in the pound, or of 3½ per cent., produced more than eleven millions; but as the return of the previous year was less than ten millions, the greater part of the excess may probably be explained by some temporary variation in the time or mode of collection. If a tax of ninepence gives ten millions and a half, a sixpenny rate would produce seven millions, and a fourpenny rate—as it might, perhaps, be more thoroughly collected—might be estimated at nearly five millions. At the cost of between two and three millions, Mr. Gladstone might return to the old and familiar rate of sevenpence, which was selected by Sir ROBERT PEEL; and if he held out the hope of further reduction in a future year, the tax-payers would be contented with the instalment. It is too much to expect that the rate should be reduced to fourpence, and this reduction could certainly not be effected under present circumstances.

All reductions of taxes are partially compensated by the increased productiveness of the remaining imposts, and there is perhaps no portion of the revenue which might be trusted to find a circuitous way to the Treasury more safely than the Income-tax, if the rate were diminished. If tea is cheapened, more and stronger tea is used, greatly to the benefit of the consumer, but with only a proportional or fractional advantage to the Custom House. A saving in Income-tax would be almost universally added to current expenditure, and perhaps a further gain might accrue to the Exchequer from an improvement in the accuracy of the returns. There are persons who would strain their consciences less freely when the temptation was diminished by a third. The strongest reason for reducing the rate to sixpence is, that the tax might then be rendered permanent during the continuance of peace. In comparison with recent experience the burden would be considered moderate, and, as an incidental advantage, the rate would in all cases admit of easy calculation. Notwithstanding ignorant clamour and laborious sophistry, it is indisputably true that an equal and permanent tax on income exactly adapts itself to all possible tenures of property, and falls with equal weight on fee-simple estates and on professional incomes worth three years' purchase. The truth would have been long since readily accepted if the tax had not been large in amount, and consequently inconvenient to the trading classes. As it is almost certain that the impost will never be abolished, it is better to simplify it, as far as possible, by the use of round numbers, and by moderation of amount. A fourpenny rate would be in the highest degree desirable; but the compromise of sixpence would perhaps satisfy a generation which never but once has seen it fall so low as fivepence. It is useless for Parliament to pass resolutions against future changes, but there is no reason to prevent the grant, for five or seven years, of a sixpenny Income-tax. At the end of such a period,

SPAIN.

THE Mexican expedition, among the minor evils it has entailed, has led to a Ministerial crisis at Madrid. The enterprise proved abortive so far as Spain is concerned, and the sanguine spirits of the nation have been disappointed in

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the hope that Spain would slip quietly and without a struggle into a new dominion over the country the first acquisition of which forms so glorious a page in her annals. Failure and national mortification are sure to lead to jealousies and mutual recriminations around all who have the recriminations among all who have had any share in the responsibility; and the discussion of the Mexican business has awakened a degree of bitterness and hostility among leading statesmen and officials, which shows how slowly a nation like Spain escapes the danger of having public interests sacrificed to personal pique and private animosity. Marshal O'DONNELL has done his utmost to smoothe the troubled waters, and has tried, by complimenting every one in turn, to bring about a general reconciliation; but his efforts would probably be unsuccessful if he had nothing surer and safer to appeal to than the good taste and the good sense of the disputants. But they are forced to acknowledge that he means something much more than an expression of the ordinary wish of a Premier to keep his Cabinet together, when he dwells on the absolute necessity of preserving such an amount of union among his supporters as will avoid a political convulsion. Both the Court and the nation want, above all things, to have a steady Government, that will permit the growth of the material prosperity of the country, and will save Spain from spending the precious time in political squabbles which might be devoted to growing rich. The advance of the Peninsula in wealth—an advance among the most remarkable and rapid in modern times-is the key to the current political history of the kingdom. That Spain should decline to have a Ministerial change, because the change would not pay, is something very striking and very novel. It is, therefore, more important for the comprehension of Spanish politics, to bear in mind the main facts of the material revival of the country, than to follow the fortunes and ascertain the views of individual statesmen. A paper contributed to the last number of the *Home and Foreign Review*, and founded on elaborate statistics carefully compiled, comes very opportunely to enable Englishmen to understand what is the nature and extent of the growth in wealth which has given Spain a new character and a new position in Europe.

To most people elaborate statistics are simply bewildering, and those who give themselves the pain of following the figures cannot possibly recollect them. It is only very simple facts that really explain to us and enable us to keep in mind how a foreign nation is going on. Fortunately, it is easy to pick out of the general sum of figures which illustrate the growing wealth of the Peninsula, two or three which bring home to us at once what the material revival of Spain really means. Spain is before all things an agricultural country, and it is calculated that three-fourths of the whole people are employed in some species of rural industry. The three main questions with regard to an agricultural country are — what is the supply of labour? what is the amount of produce? and how easily is the produce brought to market? Now, as to population, there are, in round numbers, half as many people again in Spain at present as there were fifty years ago. At the beginning of the century there were ten millions, and now there are fifteen. The production of grain, the great staple of the country, has risen within the same time from thirty-eight to sixty-six millions of hectolitres — that is, it has nearly doubled. In the last twenty years about sixteen hundred miles of new roads have been constructed, and Spain has now at least fifteen hundred miles of railway. With so large an increase of population, so vast an augmentation of production, and so many new facilities of transport, an agricultural country gains a new life. Spain is growing rich, because there are more people to work, because irrigation and increased security of tenure make cultivation more productive, and because it is every year more and more easy to sell what is produced. There are numberless other indications of advancing prosperity in Spain. Rich mines are being constantly explored; the ports are filled with new shipping; the great old towns, once so nearly descrted, are being once more repeopled. But all these are merely minor signs of a general progress w

agricultural wealth is spread over the whole surface and is developed in regular and permanent channels.

But, like every country that has long lagged behind in the race of civilization, Spain has a thousand difficulties to overcome, and the chief one is the want of men educated to overcome, and the chief one is the want of men educated to comprehend the true bearing of social and political questions. Over the greatest of all her difficulties—the appetite for useless political changes—she has triumphed. The mass of the nation are persuaded that a certain amount of political liberty is indispensable for their prosperity, and that they had better support the constitutional Government they have got. A nation must have made considerable progress in the comprehension of the abstract advantages of limited monarchy when it can regard such a Court as that of Madrid with good-humoured toleration. But there are many points in which the Government is ahead of the nation, and yet dare not go too fast. Nothing can possibly be more foolish than the refusal of Spain to pay the interest of her national debt. She has no longer the excuse of poverty. The domains specially hypothecated to guarantee the interest of the particular debt which she declines to recognise are stated to be amply sufficient to bear the whole burthen and even if they were not the payment could with recognise are stated to be amply sufficient to bear the whole burthen, and even if they were not, the payment could with the greatest ease be made by a nation possessed of so much real wealth. By declining to be honest, Spain not only foregoes the political position in Europe to which she aspires, but she debars herself from the supply of the very thing she most wants. If she could but get English capital poured into her as it is freely poured out whenever Turkey, or Egypt, or Russia, or Italy choose to ask for it, she would gain benefits which would make the payment of her debt a mere trifle. But the Ministry, even if disposed to adopt so very obvious a measure of improvement, would have to encounter strenuous political opposition. A member of the Cortes recently expressed a fervent hope that the debt owing by Spain, which is principally due to English creditors, would not be in any way recognised or liquidated until England had be in any way recognised or liquidated until England had surrendered Gibraltar; and the Finance Minister, instead of exposing the absurdity of the proposition that England should be made to give up a great fortress in order to bribe Spain to be honest, was obliged to content himself with a general assurance that he had no intention of proposing that Spain should pay what she owed. The rising industry of the country is also fettered by a system of those foolish protective duties which are looked on as the true props of national manufactures. Desirous of emulating the energy of the Emperor of the French, M. Salaverria, the Spanish Minister of Finance, not long ago procured the abolition of many of those duties by a royal decree. The manufacturers resisted so strenuously, a royal decree. The manufacturers resisted so strenuously, and visited him with deputations so urgent and pertinacious, that he had to give way, and the decree was revoked. Now a method less summary, and more in consonance with the principles of constitutional government, is being adopted, and an attempt is being made to get a Bill for the alteration of the tariff passed by the Cortes. A Government, unless it is strongly supported by the nation, and unless that allowance is made for its misches which springs from a wish to promote religious passes. the nation, and unless that allowance is made for its mistakes which springs from a wish to promote political peace, cannot venture on changes of this sort. But the O'Dox-NELL Government is maintained in office by a decisive Parliamentary majority, and its head is enabled to quell the internal dissensions of his subordinates, because a widespread feeling exists that there must be a stable Government to deal with these economical difficulties, to lead the nation in its prepare rath and to clicit by discussion and the nation in its proper path, and to elicit, by discussion and by the informing spirit of the Ministry, those wishes which, after consideration of the general interests of all, a nation gradually learns to conceive and to impose upon dissentient individuals and classes.

AMERICA.

THE causes and results of the battle of Fredericksburg are now fully understood. General Burnside and his lieutenants explain their proceedings with a modest and manly simplicity which contrasts favourably with the fustian of soldiers like General Pope, or statesmen of the calibre of Mr. Seward. The army was delayed for a fortnight or three weeks on the left bank of the Rappahannock by one of the miscarriages which occur in almost every war; and it is by no means certain that the delay in the arrival of the pontoons may not have prevented a disaster even more fatal than the defeat at Fredericksburg. If General Burnside had penetrated deeper into the country, he would only have attacked the enemy at a

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greater distance from the Potomac; and in the almost certain contingency of defeat, he might not have been able to effect a safe retreat. Although he expressly charges himself with the responsibility of his actual movements, he concurs with all responsibility of his actual movements, he concurs with all his generals in showing that military expediency was postponed to the supposed necessity of an advance. The Commander-in-chief was required to do something, and, as General Sumner says, he could only find the enemy by crossing the Rappahannock. As preparations were ostensibly made to oppose his passage at a point further down the river, he hoped to surprise the enemy by the rash measure of crossing in the face of his central position, for the ulterior purpose of a front attack. If a defeat was inevitable, it could not probably have been secured more speedily, and, at the same time, with less ruinous results. According to the official account, Burnside must have displayed utter incapacity, by exposing his troops to be slaughtered in a hopeless advance against an impregnable position. An anonymous writer furnishes the only possible excuse for the General by imputing the grossest cowardice to the army. If the Confedeimputing the grossest cowardice to the army. If the Confederate works were comparatively insignificant, General Burnside might be justified in directing his attack to a point where success would have enabled him to cut the enemy's line in It was impossible that he could foresee the unwillingness of his own troops to advance, and, on any supposition, he deserves credit for having ultimately recrossed the river in safety. The Federal loss in killed and wounded may approximately measure the courage of the army; and as all the Northern reports throw doubt on the original statements of heavy loss, it might be inferred that the troops showed a want of the first of military virtues, if it were possible to rely on statistics which are habitually falsified. It is remarkable that General Lee, in his first despatch, scarcely claimed a victory; and he evidently lost an opportunity of destroying the Federal army during its first disorder. The Confederate General expected a second attack on the following morning, and General BURNSIDE was only deterred by the remonstrances of his colleagues from once more trying his fortune. On the whole, the repulse is only decisive in as far as it puts an end to the winter campaign against Richmond.

The movements of the contending armies in the West indicate a renewal of active operations. From the Mississippi to the eastern border of Tennessee, the Confederates are occupying positions in the flank or rear both of GRANT and of ROSENCRANZ; and it is even reported that a powerful detachment from the army of Virginia has crossed the mountains, to take part in the ensuing operations. Mr. Jefferson Davis has probably had definite reasons for visiting Tennessee; and his reputed capacity as a soldier may justify, on his part, an interference which is less advantageously practised by his rival at Washington. It is of the utmost importance to the Confederates that the enemy should be beaten on the shores of the Mississippi before the naval flotilla is ready to act against Vicksburg. General Johnston, who commands in the West, is said to be an able officer, and he may perhaps find a competent opponent in General Rosencranz. The indecisive struggles of last year seem to prove that the strength of the belligerents is too equally balanced to admit of any conclusive victory or defeat. The greater part of the blood which has been shed since the commencement of the war has been altogether wasted, and it would have scarcely affected the fortunes of the contest if both parties had been content to abide by the result of the both parties had been content to acide by the result of the main struggle in Virginia. The recent advantages obtained by General Foster, in North Carolina, are confined to two or three successful skirmishes, terminating in a concentration of Confederate troops which forced the invader to withdraw to Newbern. The Federals justly boast that they retain almost all the points which they have occupied in the Southern States but they are appropriately uppelled to extend their converte. States, but they are apparently unable to extend their conquests, while the Confederates are not strong enough to expel them. In the absence of political changes and of financial difficulties, there seems to be no reason for anticipating the termination of

there seems to be no reason for anticipating the termination of the war, except after a long series of obstinate campaigns.

The next despatches from New York may probably bring important tidings. The accession of several Democratic Governors to office will encourage the Opposition, and the President may possibly have given just provocation by once more veering round to the policy of Abolition. His recent reply to the representatives of the Border States expressed, with amusing candour, the perplexity of an incapable and well-meaning ruler in the midst of conflicting influences. In issuing the Proclamation, Mr. Lincoln said that he had intended to act for the best, but if he found himself mistaken he was willing to reconsider the measure. He forgot apparently that he had to reconsider the measure. He forgot apparently that he had practically abandoned the scheme when he sent his recent

Message to Congress; and he failed to understand that the author of a revolutionary usurpation ought at least to know his own mind, and to be confident of the expediency of his wrongful act. According to the latest report, eight Slave States, or portions of States, were to be exempted from the operation of the President's lawless decree, and the negroes even in Louisiana and North Carolina are still to be kept in bondage throughout the districts which are held in submission by the Federal arms. The Proclamation is, therefore, to be expressly rendered inconventive wherever it is nossible fore, to be expressly rendered inoperative wherever it is possible that it should be put in operation except in the form of servile revolt and massacre. The PRESIDENT, who has no right to legislate for any State, abstains from enforcing his anarchic law within the territories which he can control, while he undertakes to reverse the entire social condition of vast regions in which he can assert no title to authority except the hope of future conquest. The abstraction which is described by Republican politicians as the War Power, implies, as far as it has any intelligible meaning, the authority of the President as Commander-in-chief to govern at his own discretion, or, in other words, by martial law. But even the indefinite law which consists in the code of a military ruler is confined by custom and common sense to the districts which the irregular that the slaves in Richmond are released from obedience to their masters is as repugnant to military usage as to the plain maxims of the Federal Constitution. It may be hoped that at the last moment, Mr. LINCOLN has really acted on the assump-

tion that he may probably have been mistaken.

The demand of some Republican Senators for the dismissal of Mr. Seward implies that the extreme party already fears the hesitation of the President. Mr. Seward was, rightly or wrongly, supposed to disapprove of the policy of immediate emancipation, and, consequently, he was accused of want of vigour in the prosecution of the war, although he has nothing to do with the direction of the army. It is difficult to believe that any rival Secretary of State could misconstrue international law in more offensive communications to foreign Powers; but as it is not the pleasure of Federal Americans that the State Department should be occupied by gentlemen, that the State Department should be occupied by gentlemen, nothing would have been gained by the substitution of a rabid Abolitionist for a politician who still appears open to considerations of prudence. Mr. Lincoln acted judiciously in resisting the interference of a body which only forms a bare majority of the Republican party in the Senate. He was also naturally unwilling to part with Mr. Chase, who alone among his colleagues appears to have given proof of administrative ability. No possible successor could have raised 180,000,000l. in default of a revenue except by trying every conceivable ability. No possible successor could have raised 180,000,000. in default of a revenue, except by trying every conceivable experiment on the currency and on the money market. Congress will probably adopt Mr. Chase's recommendations in bulk, and some of the devices which he proposes may perhaps be effectual in providing for the immediate wants of the Treasury. It was, perhaps, unavoidable that the vast fiscal operations of the past year should encourage fraud among the less scrupulous capitalists of New York, with the aid of subordinate officials. The nation which has tolerated the proceedings of Mr. Cameron and General Fremont will not be too strict in exacting retriand General Fremont will not be too strict in exacting retribution from the skilful manipulators of loans. Perhaps the most consolatory reflection which can occur to Federal politicians is that their opponents are, on their side, committing an inexcusable blunder. Mr. Davis is perfectly justified in feeling resentment against General Butler; and, in the improbable event of his centuring his enemy, a question might arise

GREECE.

Proclamation.

beling resentment against General BUTLER; and, in the improbable event of his capturing his enemy, a question might arise as to his claim to profit by the immunities of a prisoner of war. In the meantime, it is useless and undignified to threaten retaliation, which, even if it were effected, would only lead to further reprisals. It might at least have been prudent to wait till the 1st of January was past before providing for the possible punishment of Federal officers who may attempt to enforce the

THE Greeks are rediscovering for themselves, in conformity with the previous experience of many nations, that the perfumed smoothness of resewater revolutions speedily makes perfumed smoothness of rosewater revolutions speedily makes room for less agreeable combinations. The forms and persons which symbolize a vicious political condition are easily removed, but, unless the state of society is adapted to orderly freedom, the old irregularities recur under altered circumstances. The Greek population is not accustomed to obey, and it must be admitted that there has been some excuse for the general contempt of lawful authority. Magistrates and policemen who interfere with elections and not with highway

robberies, Court favourites turned into generals, and representatives appointed by the Crown, can scarcely claim the habitual respect which is, nevertheless, the indispensable condition of liberty and of improvement. Official dishonesty promoted an anarchical disposition which in its turn facilitated corruption. It is to the credit of the Greeks that, if they were too often willing to sell themselves to the Court they reconstructed. too often willing to sell themselves to the Court, they nevertheless at last became indignant with the Royal purchaser who stimulated their national vices. There is no doubt that they now desire to become respectable, as well as to attain external greatness; and perhaps their nomination of Prince Alfred expressed a belief in moral rectitude as strongly as a justifiable wish to secure the English alliance. The pursuit of a common object was highly beneficial in prolonging the harmony which, for the most part, ceases with the first days of a successful revolution. For two months all parties have been engaged in a patriotic enterprise, and they have been encouraged by a common hope. It is not surprising that the disappointment of their expectations, and the difficulty of selecting a king, should once more bring to light the disputes which have been temporarily suspended. The Provisional Government is accused of discouraging the formation of a National Guard, and on the other hand, Colonel CORONEO, Commander of the civic force, has resigned under charges of irregular ambition and intrigue; and it may be feared that similar squabbles will interrupt the further progress of the revolution, unless the provisional conduct of affairs is speedily terminated by the election of a King. A National Guard has seldom proved itself a source of strength to any Government; but the regular army of Greece is justly unpopular, and some kind of armed force is necessary for the maintenance of order. It is not surprising, then, that the Government should prefer troops who may possibly obey the commands of their superiors, or that the people of Athens should be jealous of military ascendency.

In one of their principal objects the Greeks have unexpectedly succeeded; and they must be strangely exacting if they are dissatisfied with the liberal offer of the English Government. Mr. Ellior has formally proposed the cession of the Ionian Islands, on condition that Greece shall establish constitutional monarchy at home, and repudiate aggression on the Turkish dominions. It must, for the present, be assumed that Lord Russell has consulted the Great Powers of Europe, so far as to ascertain that there will be no insurmountable diplomatic impediment to the surrender of the Protectorate. In accordance with the strictest constitutional propriety, the English Government proposes to consult the Ionian Senate and Assembly; but it is naturally taken for granted that no serious objection will be raised on behalf of the islanders, who are most immediately interested in the transfer. The Greeks themselves are said to hesitate in their judgment of the advantages of the annexation; but their Government will not venture to reject an unexpected offer of aggrandizement, merely because the acute inhabitants of Corfu may lay claim to more than their proportionate share of office and salary. An ambitious nation cannot but appreciate the increase of its population by a fifth, and a considerable extension of territory, including two or three available harbours. Among the other inhabitants of the eastern coasts of the Mediterranean, the Ionians bear no enviable reputation; and Italian mariners repeat an apocryphal tradition, that St. Peter himself turned his back on Corfu, when he found that the character of the people was beyond even apostolic toleration. The English Consular Courts will rejoice in their relief from the administration of justice over Ionian residents in Turkey; but Greeks may probably regard with special indulgence the shortcomings of those who share their own religion and language. Politicians will not fail to perceive the advantages which may hereafter accrue from the extension of the frontier of the kingdom i

If Greece, which has been comparatively moderate and quiet, doubts the expediency of this gift, the Ionians, who have been clamouring for years against the beneficent protection of England, find too late that they have nothing whatever to gain by the complete accomplishment of their wishes. St. Spirition, who through his votaries has long been employed in cursing English tyranny, is now

publicly called upon to punish the traitors who propose a ruinous annexation to Greece. The respectable inhabitants have always held the same opinion, nor have the peasantry or the artisans any prejudice against a Government which enforces the laws, and a garrison which provides employment and a profitable market; but under democratic institutions respectability is dumb, and the turbulent demagogues and priests have revelled in the opportunity of defying authorities who have learned by tradition at home to tolerate verbal sedition. The only just ground of complaint which the Ionians could urge against England was the concession of an absurdly promiscuous representative system fifteen or twenty years ago. It would not become the English Government to withdraw popular franchises which had been inconsiderately conceded; and the islanders themselves have not courage or political experience sufficient for the reform of their own institutions. They now find that they are about to lose a connexion in which all the burdens were on the side of the protecting Power, and they must throw in their lot with a State which has scarcely emerged from the barbarism of anarchy. The dramatic retribution of their factious agitation is instructive and amusing, and on the whole they may perhaps ultimately gain in character and dignity by the loss of material advantages. Under a High Commissioner and an impotently rebellious Assembly, the Ionians would never have learned to manage their own affairs. The community has relied for the maintenance of order and good government on the foreign Executive, while it has regaled itself with the excitement of demanding a liberation which, as it was supposed, would never be conceded. Like children pulling at a closed door, when the resistance is suddenly withdrawn, the agitators are naturally thrown on their backs; and henceforth they will perhaps learn that it is not safe to depend on the perseverance of an opponent.

The policy of the proposed cession will probably become, on the meeting of Parliament, a subject of serious controversy. Veterans of the old war have naturally formed a high estimate of the military importance of islands which successively belonged to France, to Russia, and to England; and, for certain operations, it would undoubtedly be convenient to occupy Corfu. Unless, however, it became necessary to carry on war in the border provinces of Austria and Turkey, the maintenance of a considerable garrison at a remote point might involve both cost and danger. In the majority of cases, three or four thousand men might perhaps be better employed in guarding the vital position of Malta than in waiting at Corfu while the main contest was carried on at a distance. The advocates of the abandonment of the islands will probably also insist on the political convenience of relinquishing a Protectorate which, in time of peace, yields no visible advantage to the country, and which furnishes rivals and detractors with a fertile topic of misrepresentation and abuse. It may perhaps be further urged that it would be useful to set an example of disregarding the feeling which forbids the withdrawal of any occupation of foreign territory. On the whole, though the act is not a sublime exertion of self-denial, it is unquestionably honest, and the only questions of political expediency.

MRS. STOWE AND THE WOMEN OF ENGLAND.

MORE than eight years ago, the women of Great Britain and Ireland, many thousands strong, addressed what, in their own feminine language, they styled an "Affectionate and "Christian address to their sisters, the women of the United "States of America." The address was, we now find, "draughted by an honoured and religious nobleman," and it was signed by a great many great ladies and a great many small ones, who were equally surprised and gratified by being admitted, for this occasion only, to mix with the cream of high life. At least four duchesses and the wife of Bishop Gobar "appear" on the same page with the wives of humble labourers; "and the half million of signatures comprise the fine Italian hand of Cabinet Ministresses and the "trembling characters of "hands evidently unused to hold the pen," which is the superfine American English for women who hardly know how to write their names. The Affectionate and Christian document was splendidly illuminated, bound in twenty-six folio volumes, and now stands in its solid oaken case, "a singular "monument of an international expression of a moral "idea." After having taken eight years to digest this ponderous monument of the international expression of a

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moral idea, Mrs. Beecher Stowe at last has thought proper to answer it, in a "Reply to the Affectionate and "Christian, &c. on behalf of many thousands of American "women." When ladies on either side of the Atlantic take to international expressions of moral ideas, it might be more polite to stand on one side and leave to the fair correspondents the full gush and flow of sentiment and advice. Since the repeal of the paper duties, it will not cost so very much if the whole half million take once more the British pen and give Mrs. STOWE as good as she gives. As to the original address, it is anything but charity to revive it; but the feminine mind is retentive, and although the Duchesses and Countesses would, many of them, in 1863, pay an income-tax on their pin-money not to be reminded of their folly eight years ago, we can hardly blame Mrs. Stowe for her too faithful memory. We, too, have not forgotten the Affectionate and Christian address, or the select and fashionable demonstrations with which Mrs. Stowe was welcomed. Very likely she herself prompted the international expression of the moral idea, and intended to use it as occasion expression of the moral idea, and intended to use it as occasion served. That it was numerously signed, who can doubt? To be privileged to write on the same parchment with a Duchess is something distantly like a card to the same Duchess's drum, and Bloomsbury was glad enough to fraternize — we mean sororize — with Belgravia; especially when the object was to lecture, in a Christian and affectionate spirit, an erring sister. The subject on which the British ladies were moved to appeal to the "American sisters, wives, "and mothers," was the wrongs of the negro; but had it been any other "affliction and disgrace" we can quite believe that half a million of women would always be forthcoming to offer half a million of women would always be forthcoming to offer bitter-sweet remonstrances and tender advice on any conceivable bitter-sweet remonstrances and tender advice on any conceivable subject to any other half a million of sisters. Half a million of women who wear pink bonnets would be found to-morrow, under the inspiration of an honoured and religious nobleman, to remonstrate with any other half million who affect blue head-gear. The value of the address was not originally great, but, like other vapid liquors, it may be that ladies' homilies

acquire a bouquet by age. Whether the British ladies might not have been as profitably employed, eight years ago, in attending to their own house-holds as in criticizing the Constitution of the United States, it is now useless to inquire; but they have at last got a rap on the knuckles from their old friend, Mrs. Stowe. Her answer is very feminine indeed. It consists of that favourite answer is very feminine indeed. It consists of that favourite rhetorical common-place—so dear to the ladies—known in the language of art as the *Tu quoque* argument, and, in the dialect of the streets, as *You're another*. Logically, it is not good for much; controversially, it often settles a question. The ladies of England told the ladies of America that they were very naughty, because they had not made their husbands prohibit slavery on the American continent. The ladies of America, through Mrs. Srowe, tell the ladies of England that they are very naughty because their husbands sympathize they are very naughty, because their husbands sympathize much more strongly with the South than the North. And Mrs. Stowe has actually, after the manner of Mrs. Naggleton, the shrewdness to retort on the British female her own advice, in her own words. In all "solemn sadness"—of course not without a little spice of that malice which is said to season the feminine relish in giving advice—the American ladies, quoting the eight-year old British appeal, say:—

"A common origin, a common faith, and, we sincerely "A common origin, a common faith, and, we sincerely believe, a common cause, urge us, at the present moment, to address you on the subject of that fearful encouragement and support which is being afforded by England to a slave-holding Confederacy. We will not dwell on the ordinary topics—on the progress of civilization; on the advance of freedom everywhere; on the rights and requirements of the nineteenth century; but we appeal to you very seriously to reflect, and to ask counsel of God how far such a state of things is in accordance with His Holy Word, the inalienof things is in accordance with His Holy Word, the inalien-"able rights of immortal souls, and the pure and merciful spirit of the Christian religion. We appeal to you, as sisters, as wives, and as mothers, to raise your voices to your fellow-citizens, and your prayers to God, for the removal of this affliction and disgrace from the Christian world."

When we explain that, with the sole exception of the two When we explain that, with the sole exception of the two lines we have italicized, this is a verbatim reproduction of the Stafford-House address, it will be seen that Mrs. Srowe understands how to wield the argumentum ad faminam. The substitution of "that fearful encouragement and support "which is being afforded by England to a slaver-holding "Confederate" to "that system of Negro slavery which still "Confederate" that system of Negro slavery which still

she has found it necessary to take with the original monument of the international expression of the great moral idea. of the international expression of the great moral idea. We must say that the retort implied in this ingenious, yet simple, adaptation is complete and perfect. Only a woman could have hit upon this peculiarly telling and monstrously annoying rejoinder. The British nonsense serves admirably for American nonsense; and while London may take the credit of the invention, Washington displays high merit in the shrewd and spiteful application of it. The ladies of England deserve what they have got; but if they will lecture Mrs. Jefferson Beick and Mrs. General Choke, they cannot be surprised if they are lectured in turn. To be confuted with their own words, and to be chawed up out of their own mouths, is but the poet's fate who was done to death by a song of his own composing: composing :-

That Eagle's fate and mine are one,
Which, on the shaft [or Shaftesbury?] that made him die,
Espied a feather of his own,
Wherewith he wont to soar so high.

Mrs. Srowe's neat rejoinder, however, is only good against those to whom it is addressed. As addressed to the half million remonstrants, we can leave it where it stands; and we only trust, for the sake of the British ladies, that it will not be acted upon. The very thought of half a million curtain lectures delivered, as Mrs. Stowe seems to suggest, on the pleasant subject of the doings of the Alabama, can have but one result. We must appoint at least a score of Sir Cresswell Cresswells, in anticipation of the increased business in the Divorce Court. But if Mrs. Stowe is really at a loss to account for the difference between the language of the ladies eight years ago, and what she calls the present decline of the noble anti-slavery fire in England, we will help her to the solution of the difficulty. And, first, we beg her to remember that the women of England, And, first, we beg her to remember that the women of England, even in 1854, were not the men of England in 1854. There are many occasions on which we allow the ladies to do lady-like things. They very much admired *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, and they thought that the authoress was a credit to her sex. And so they waxed sentimental, gushing, hysterical, and sympathetic, over her and her book, and had recourse to the international expression of a moral idea. Perhaps we thought it rather silly; but it is not always convenient to interfere when rather silly things are said in the drawing-room, and rather silly things flow from the feminine pen. But as time and rather silly things flow from the feminine pen. But as time went on, we—and, to do them justice, perhaps the ladies too—discovered that even Uncle Tom was not authentic history, and that, at any rate, it drew a universal conclusion from particular premises. If there is a reaction in England, the Abolitionists, and especially Mrs. Srowe, have to thank themselves for it. The reasoning powers severely resent an unfair and untrue appeal to the feelings. We also know that Mrs. Srowe's own connexions and friends have for eight long years done their best to promote civil war, and ever since it broke out have employed pen and pulpit in the Christian cause of making hatred and strife more bitter and more bloody. Moreover, giving all credit to the sincerity of the Abolitionists, Moreover, giving all credit to the sincerity of the Abolitionists, we know, from historical facts, that Abolitionism and the North are not coterminous. It may be that Mrs. Srowe and her fanatical connexions are in earnest, and that they sincerely believe — as Dr. Cheever and Dr. Beecher preach—that it believe—as Dr. Cheever and Dr. Beecher preach—that it is in the interests of humanity that every household in the South should be visited by fire and sword; and we doubt not that they would cheerfully purchase the emancipation of the four million of Southern slaves by the extermination of the eight million of whites. But we also know that this opinion is only the opinion of a minority in the North—a minority even compared with those who would welcome Mr. Davis as the President of the once more United States. Mrs. Stown's prime fallacy is the identification of the whole North with unconditional Abolitionism. We know that the North is fighting for empire, and the South for independence. We know that the North wants supremacy, commercial advantages, and the whole patronage and profits of the Union. We know that the South wants an open market, and the right to manage its own affairs. We know that climate, race, and all sorts of considerations—commercial, physical, and political —of which slave-holding is only one expression, are at the bottom of the disruption; and that, as it is utterly impossible for the North and South to remain one empire, it is better for Stafford-House address, it will be seen that Mrs. Stowe understands how to wield the argumentum ad fæminam. The substitution of "that fearful encouragement and support "which is being afforded by England to a slave-holding "Confederacy" for "that system of Negro slavery which still "prevails so extensively, and, even under kindly disposed "masters, with such frightful results, in many of the vast "regions of the Western world," is the only liberty which not mean to carry out in practice what they pledged themselves to in words — is a libel on Washington and his peers.

These are the things which may help Mrs. Stowe to understand what she professes herself unable to comprehend—the change of feeling in the English nation. It is not that we love slavery or the South more, but that we love the North less. And is there not a cause? If we were disposed to answer Mrs. STOWE in the oleaginous dialect in which the Sisters have stowe in the oleaginous dialect in which the Sisters have hitherto corresponded, we should be disposed to ask the men, as well as the women, of the United States to suffer the word of exhortation for a brief season; and in an affectionate and Christian address, we, too, should give an international expression to a moral idea or two. We should say that, though we are a long suffering people, and though we can appreciate what is really great and good in the American character, we what is really great and good in the American character, we are not disposed any longer to endure the rabid hatred and threats which, not American newspapers merely, but American statesmen pour upon the British name. Nor, again, though we may sympathize with the negro, are we quite dead to the wrongs of the white. If, as Mrs. Stowe argues, we can only show our sympathy with the slave by identifying ourselves with her and her friends—with Dr. BEECHER and General BUTLER, with a servile insurrection and with a reign of terrorwe must withhold that sympathy, and take the consequences, even though they present themselves in the terrible form of Mrs. STOWE'S outraged feelings and disappointed susceptibilities. If, as Mrs. Stowe absurdly asserts, the address of the English ladies precipitated the American civil war, we can only assure her that, of the half million of women who signed it, there are, we believe, not half a hundred who would not willingly cut off their erring right hands, so that they could atone for an action on which Mrs. Stowe fastens the responsibility of that Aceldama of blood and worse than fraternal strife. We are not going to argue the old question, whether the South is fighting for slavery, or the North against it; but, for the moment, we will admit Mrs. Stowe's opinion that it is so. And we answer, that even emancipation is not worth the cost of the present war. It may be a sufficient consolation to Mrs. STOWE the present horrors, to hear some old negress mutter, "Bressed be de Lord dat brought me to see dis first happy day of my "life! Bressed be de Lord!" We leave her all the "life! Bressed be de Lond!" We leave her all the comfort she can extract from all the jargon of Negro-English that she can invent. But the time has gone by for even English women to be caught by this miserable clap-trap. What we see is a war the bloodiest, the most purposeless, the most hopeless in history. What we see is the threat of extermination on one side, and of savage retalia-What we see is tion on the other. What we see is the outrage of women, and the murder of innocent men, adopted and rewarded by the North. What we see is a war carried on without the possibility of success, merely to enrich contractors, and to maintain political adventurers. And when we see that one side is responsible, and alone responsible, for all these horrors, we cannot say, to use Mrs. Srowe's language, that by such things or by such men are "the bonds of wickedness loosed, or abiding " peace established on the foundation of righteousness." must rather say that the reverend authority which, like Dr. CHEEVER'S, laughs to scorn the policy of not inciting slaves to rebellion, is not only unchristian and unscriptural, but is enough to dissociate for ever the women of England from their affectionate friend and adviser, Mrs. BEECHER STOWE.

DR. CULLEN ON A YEAR OF IRISH HISTORY.

ONE would not have supposed, looking at the matter in the light of first principles, that an Irish Roman Catholic prelate would find just now anything particularly exhilarating in a retrospect of twelve months of Irish history. The manners and morals of the people of the sister country have not, on the whole, been such during the past year as to reflect any extraordinary credit either on the religion which they profess or on its authorized teachers. Most assuredly it cannot be said that our Irish fellow-subjects have of late let their light shine before men with advantage to their own reputation. The year 1862 will long be memorable—it may be hoped, exceptionally memorable—for a startling outburst of criminal propensities which had apparently been subdued by the beneficent influences of prosperous industry, just legislation, and advancing education. It was a year of bloody and savage murders—of murders perpetrated on principle and system, and notoriously sanctioned by the guilty sympathies of the most numerous class of the population. The official returns of killed and wounded have not yet been published, but there can unhappily be no doubt that whenever the criminal statistics of 1862 are made up, they will show a frightful increase of what

may be called the national crime of Ireland-organized assassing tion. During a great part of last summer and autumn not a week passed without contributing its quota to swell the catalogue of ferocious murders and murderous outrages. And these Irish murders are not like murders in any other country calling itself civilized and Christian. They have a special character of their own. Mostly committed at the bidding of a secret association, they invariably command the undisguised approval of large masses of the people. In Ireland, it may be said that there is a public opinion in favour of homicide. It will not have been forgotten that, at the Special Commission appointed in the course of last summer to try a batch of agrarian murderers, the failure of justice in the case of a singularly brutal assassination was hailed with obstreperous popular rejoicing. To this hour, the assassin of Braddell—the land-agent who was shot at midday in an hotel in the most frequented part of a busy and thriving town—has never been arrested. The man is perfectly well known; he has been traced through half-a-dozen counties; a large reward has been offered for his capture; but he is and remains safe in the sympathies of the finest peasantry in the world. And these cases are typical. The fact is, as a witness some time since told a Longford jury without any apparent intention of joking on a serious subject, "many very decent people in Ireland are fond of murderers;" and the same truth has been expressed from the bench in a more decorous form by judges—even Roman Catholic judges—like
Baron Deasy and Justice Keggh, who deplore the existence of
"a wide-spread disposition to screen and shelter the assassin
"from justice." Altogether, the past twelve months must be pronounced, according to every recognised moral standard, a dismal and shameful chapter in the annals of Ireland. The one dominant fact which gives the year its distinctive character is the revival, on the largest scale, of a class of crimes which, it was fondly hoped, even Tipperary had ceased to

It might have been thought that such a condition of things would inspire with natural indignation and horror—not to say humiliation—the Most Reverend head of the Irish Roman Catholic hierarchy. The people among whom murder is thus, as it were, domesticated, are a Roman Catholic people, and, we are assured, a particularly devout and docile Roman Catholic people. Their spiritual pastors and masters have unrestrained access to the Tipperary mind, and well understand the art of wielding at will the fierce democracy. They are never slow to claim for themselves and their Church the credit of all the real or imaginary virtues of the Celtic character, and they might, therefore, be reasonably expected to recognise some responsibility for a state of popular feeling and opinion which abets, encourages, applauds, and protects crime. It is not disputed (except, we believe, by Mr. Whalley) that murder—even the murder of a mere landlord or landlord's agent—is a sin according to the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church; and it seems only decent to assume that it must be profoundly painful to the official guardians of Roman Catholic orthodoxy to witness the extensive diffusion of so tremendous a heresy as the lawfulness of assassination. When an Irish Roman Catholic Archbishop undertakes to review from his Cathedral throne, for the instruction and edification of the faithful, the events of such a year as 1862, we are entitled to expect that he will make some reference to the prevalence of the confessedly heterodox tenet that murder in cold blood is meritorious. It seems to be due to propriety that the general tone of his historical retrospect should partake somewhat of the dissatisfaction and anxiety with which a pious mind naturally regards a flagrant popular aberration from the true faith.

Dr. Cullen, however, does not view matters at all in this light. He has just been welcoming the New Year with a discourse to his flock from which we are unable to gather that he is in any degree painfully impressed by the failure of Irish Roman Catholic teaching to inculcate respect for the Sixth Commandment. Nothing could well be more cheerful than the archiepisoopal survey of twelve months of domestic history which have been chiefly distinguished by a series of brutal murders committed in the presence of an approving population. He evidently considers that the year 1862 has been, on the whole, a highly creditable year for Ireland. There has been much unmerited suffering from poverty and destitution, but the moral and spiritual condition of the country is eminently satisfactory. Ireland has sympathized with the best of Popes in his unheard-of afflictions, and has consoled and cheered the Pontifical heart by her fidelity to the holiest of causes. In particular, she has done herself immortal honour by pronouncing uproariously in favour of "the Catholic University." What a grand day was that 20th of July last, when all "the

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"mayors, the town-councillors, the chairmen of townships, the sheriffs, the magistrates, the deputy-lieutenants, and the multitude of people assembled in this church to assist at the sacrifice of the holy mass, were animated with one feeling-"firm determination to secure a Catholic education for their "children—a determination still more strongly manifested by "the good order, the regularity, the solemnity of the procession through the city, which," &c. That is what Dr. Cullen thinks best worth remembering in the Ireland of 1862. Literally, the ridiculous attempt to signalize the foundation of a new seat of learning and religion by a noisy and semi-seditious open-air "demonstration" is the one incident in the year's domestic annals which he is anxious to rescue from oblivion. He can be discursive enough on other topics. He has plenty to say about Italy, and the Holy Father, and the Holy Father, seemies and persecutors, and "the unhappy man who was saluted by infatuated crowds as a redeemer, "who was saluted by inlatuated crowds as a redeemer," but who has now "become an object of contempt, and retired "into obscurity, to weep, it may be hoped, over his follies "and transgressions." He has a hit or two at "Protestant "England" and Guy Fawkes's Day, and does not forget to remark, with pious complacency, that, "one after another, "the enemies of the Holy See and of religion are passing "away from the scene of their iniquities." But it does not cover to him to say a single word which can be taken on the occur to him to say a single word which can be taken, on the most liberal construction, as intended to rebuke and restrain the savage passions which have assumed so terrible a pro-minence in the social life of Ireland. There is nothing, in all this harangue, from which it can be inferred that the Most Reverend orator views with disapprobation and regret the moral condition of a country in which human life is held cheap, and the "wild justice of revenge" systematically exalted above the Decalogue. The very last notion which would strike a reader of this discourse of Dr. Cullen is, that the hierarchy over which he presides is deeply solicitous to inculcate on the Irish Roman Catholic mind the primary

obligations of religion and morality.

In this New Year's sermon from the head of the Irish Roman Catholic priesthood, we see how and why it is that Roman Catholic priesthood, we see how and why it is that murder thrives in the sister country. The religious and moral teachers of the Irish people have, it seems, something to think about which interests them more than the Ten Commandments and the cardinal virtues. They are too full of the Catholic University, and the rights and wrongs of the Holy Father. They are too busy collecting Peter's Pence, and driving doubtful voters to the poll. Men really cannot attend to everything at once. The capacity of the corporate, as of the individual, mind is limited. It is not in human nature to be absorbed, at one and the same time, by two distinct sets of ideas and interests. Ultramontane politics have no obvious affinity to the first principles of morality and religion; and it affinity to the first principles of morality and religion; and it is unfair to expect a devotee of the Temporal Power to trouble himself much about Ribbonism. When Roman Catholic priests and bishops cease to be supremely occupied with the ecular interests of the Papacy, it will begin to be possible for them to give their serious attention to the moral improvement of the Irish people.

THE REPORTS OF THE FEDERAL MINISTERS.

THE annual narratives which are prepared by the Ministers of the United States to accompany the President's Message, are apt to be extinguished, like stars of low magnitude, in the presence of the moon; but now that the effulgence of Mr. Lincoln's wisdom has had time to wane, it may not be altogether lost time to glance at the reports of the minor luminaries. Three of these—from the departments of War, of the Navy, and of the Interior—might be expected to furnish a complete political and military register of the affairs of the unlucky Union; and though they are severely dry and prudently meagre, they really do contain some valuable information. Their bulk seems to vary directly with the comparative successes of the different Ministers. Mr. Welles has much to tell of which his department may fairly be proud, and he is diffuse accordingly. In March, 1861, the Federal Navy consisted of 76 vessels, of which only 42 were in commission. Of the 7,600 seamen in the service of the State, only 207 were to be found in the home ports for the blockade of half a continent. Mr. Welles tells us that he has now 427 vessels afloat and on the stocks, carrying 1,577 guns, and manned by 28,000 sailors. A body of 12,000 mechanics are hard at work in the various yards, and after every allowance it must be acknowledged that there is less than the usual American exaggeration in the boast that "the annals of the "world devect house or great an ingresse in so bying a registed." "world do not show so great an increase, in so brief a period, "to the naval power of any country." The greater part of

the new ships, it is true, are converted merchantmen, ill suited for naval warfare; but they are said, perhaps with truth, to have performed all that was expected of them, and to have been acquired on extremely easy terms. As the whole expenses of the Navy department are put down at less than 9,000,000l., Mr. Welles may fairly claim the credit of exceptional economy, which is the more remarkable if the rumours which are current of private aggrandizement have any foundation. The marvel is a little reduced when it is any foundation. The marvel is a little reduced when it is observed that the average measurement of the new ships is less than 700 tons; but though the great majority of these vessels are of the gunboat class, it must be remembered that they include a considerable number of costly iron-sides. A scrutiny might somewhat abate the first impression of Mr. Welles's activity; but enough has been done to show that abundant energy existed to supply the precise want which was most severely felt.

The newly-created navy has been used with a vigour which has never been displayed by the enormous armies which have been gathered together. For the most part, the gunboats have had no more arduous duty to perform than to shell Confederate soldiers, and provide a safe refuge for the defeated armies of the Union; but they have done this well, and at the storming of the New Orleans fortresses, and on some other occasions, the naval forces have displayed a gallantry of which the land operations supply no example. The scanty fleet of sea-going ships may not have been very successful in sealing up the blockaded ports; but they have done far more to check the export of cotton, and to obstruct the import of arms, than was believed to be possible when the war commenced. North have given them an immense advantage over their adversaries. In the famous fight of the Monitor and the Merrimac, the Federals undoubtedly had the advantage, and even the Arkansas (which Mr. Welles forgets to mention) came to an inglorious end after her splendid dash at the Vicksburg squadron. The one dark spot on the picture is the Alabama burning and sinking the merchant ships of New York and Poetro through the specific product of the specific produc York and Boston, although there is now, as we are told, "quite a fleet on the ocean engaged in pursuing her;" but even this calamity brings its own consolation in the opportunity which it affords to the Secretary of the Navy to dwell upon the crimes of England, and to put forth the modest suggestion that the Government of Great Britain ought to indemnify the merchants who have suffered from the chances of war.

The Secretary of War has to deal with more imposing numbers and less satisfactory results, but he puts the best possible face on his narrative, by dwelling almost exclusively on the brief period of success which ushered in the commencement of the year. The real triumphs at Fort Donnelson, Fort Henry, and Island No. 10, though mainly due to the co-operation of gunboats, are fairly enough put forward to relieve the gloom of more recent reverses; and, fortunately for Mr. Stanton, the last and most crushing defeat did not occur until after the publication of and, fortunately for Mr. STANTON, the last and most crushing defeat did not occur until after the publication of his report. "The great energy and ability" of Major-General Butler are made the subject of especial praise; and it is, perhaps, only on account of his want of Federal rank that General M'Neil was not selected to occupy a companion pedestal. The resumé of military operations, however, throws no new light on the past, and is chiefly remarkable from showing the absence of any connected plan of campaign in the desultory and unsuccessful operations of the year. The points on which Mr. Stanton might have further than the stanton of the year. nished the most interesting information are left in the deepest obscurity. The total number of men under arms is stated at 775,000, but beyond the vague assurance that these figures are derived "from recent official returns," neither the grounds of the calculation, nor the time to which it relates, are stated. In another part of the report it is incidentally admitted that a large number of officers and enlisted soldiers, who are drawing pay and rations, are improperly absent from their posts, and that the provost-marshals are busily employed in pursuing these fugitives. As might have been anticipated, the pay and bounty allowed to recruits have encouraged frauds by false returns on muster-rolls and false charges for subsistence, and a large deduction on these accounts must probably have to be made from the official strength of the Federal army. The report gives no clue to the extent of this system of depredation, except in the anxiety which is evinced to check it by measures of the utmost stringency. The sum set down as recruiting expenditure, though large, is far below the prevailing estimates, being between four and five millions sterling; but this of course does not include the extravagant bounties given B 2

by some of the States, or the contributions of private citizens. The continued zeal of Illinois and Iowa is evidenced by the fact that they alone have furnished more than their full quota both of Volunteers and Militia; and after allowing for all exaggeration and every possible deduction, an official return of 420,000 men enlisted under the calls of July and August must be accepted as a sign, if not of national enthusiasm, at any rate of abundant executive vigour. By comparing these figures with the official strength of the whole army, we arrive at the conclusion that only 350,000 of the old levies remain in the field. In the spring the numbers were given at from 600,000 to 700,000, and it follows that 300,000 have disappeared, for the majority of whom Mr. Stanton himself would find it difficult to account. Among all the schemes would find it difficult to account. Among all the schemes of which the slaves have been the subject, Mr. Stanton's has the peculiarity of being the most practical, and, at the same time, the most inconsistent with the supposed championship of negro freedom. He recognises the fact that the coloured population has shown no disposition to servile insurrection, and that, as a rule, they would all prefer forced labour in the South to the uncongenial life that would await them among Northern Abolitionists. Starting from this point, the Secretary of War proposes to utilize the negro labour of the conquered districts about New Orleans and elsewhere on the quered districts about New Orleans, and elsewhere on the coast, by a process which would be tantamount to constituting the Federal Government the largest slaveholder in the country The value of the slaves, in cultivating corn to supply the Federal armies, is sufficiently obvious, and the stigma of perpetuating slavery is avoided by describing the cess as one of organization and protection. Whether, without compulsion, the negroes would choose to work under General BUTLER, rather than remain subject to their old masters, may be doubtful, and the more turbulent among them who have sheltered themselves under the wing ordinary trouble to their overseers. General Butter's peculiar energy and ability would perhaps reduce them to order; but if the project were extensively carried out, it would be a strange commentary on the theories of the Abolitionists and the President's Proclamation.

By a singular misnomer, the MINISTER of the INTERIOR is chiefly concerned with the management of the outlying portions of the Federal dominions. The utilization of the unappropriated land in territories which lie beyond the great wave of population, and the regulation of Indian affairs, have less than their usual interest in the midst of domestic convulsion. Even the organization of the Federal Courts has become of secondary importance since the Provost-Marshal has acquired a higher jurisdiction than the legal tribunals. But though Mr. Caleb Smith's name is almost unknown—while his colleagues of the Navy and War departments are only too notorious—he has found or made an opportunity to connect his memory with the great civil war. Among his duties is the superintendence of the public buildings which, dotted over desolate acres, constitute the glory of the Federal capital. By what might be thought a happy stroke of humour, if humour were not unknown in America, Mr. Smith has chosen for the completion of the Capitol at Washington the year which may see the disruption of the Union which it was meant to symbolize. The work is almost finished—the dome, indeed, was to be completed before the end of 1862; and it is added that scarcely anything would remain to be done besides the construction of the tholus, surmounted by the statue of Freedom, as the crowning feature of the dome of the Capitol. There is a practical irony about this proposal, which throws into the shade the metaphorical "crowning of the edifice" with which Louis Napoleon has so long bewildered the expectations of France; but the population of New York will probably fail to see the incongruity of raising a statue to Freedom over the ruins of a Republic where freedom is no longer known.

PRISON DISCIPLINE.

THE county of Hampshire has had the honour of supplying materials for several columns of newspaper reporting during the present week. On Monday, Lord Carnarvon brought before the magistrates the condition of Winchester Gaol, and the treatment of the prisoners in that comfortable hostelry. On Wednesday, Lord Palmerston treated the Romsey labourers with certain prizes, a substantial dinner, some good advice, and a great many bad jokes. The condition of the honest Hampshire labourer and of the Hampshire rogue comes out in as strong relief on these two occasions as in the famous Choice of Hercules. Everybody knows that famous

allegory - how the austere charms of virtue and the meretricious attractions of vice were both presented to the god-like hero, and how he had the grace to choose the better path. We trust that the successors of Hercules, not only in frame but in moral fibre, are to be found in Hampshire; but we must say that they are subjected to a trial nearly as hard to flesh and that they are subjected to a trial nearly as hard to flesh and blood as in old times it required a demigod to grapple with. What the honest man gets—that is, if he is the strongest, steadiest, and most lucky of his class—is an annual pecuniary reward ranging from five shillings to thirty, together with a stuffing of beef and carrots once a-year, the privilege of listening to a live lord's puns, and the consolation that he is certain to get employment, and will "obtain in the kindness, "good will, and good offices of his employer a recompense "which to his feelings must ever be more grateful even than "some more substantial merits." "Virtue is its own best "reward," is after all the lesson which Lord Palmerston "reward," is after all the lesson which Lord PALMERSTON reads to the shepherds, teamsmen, ploughmen, and farm-labourers. And so is Vice, according to Lord Carnaron. The question, we fear, is a very awkward one. Virtue pays, The question, we fear, is a very awkward one. Virtue pays, but it is at the rate of an average ten hours a day hard work out in the sun, and frost, and wind, and wet, on the cold down and in the clammy ditch, with just enough food to keep body and soul teachers and with the resulting tenths. and in the claiming ditch, with just enough food to keep body and soul together, and with the constant carking care of how to provide for wife and children, and so to keep the wolf from the door, with the certainty of only one solid dinner a-year seasoned with a prize, a certificate, and a "jocular remark" from Lord Palmerston. Vice pays, and on a very different scale. The investment in require is by no means account. The investment in roguery is by no means speculative. If the Hampshire labourer is honest, he may get a reward in the unsubstantial form that butters no parsnips, but if he turns thief he will live knee-deep in clover. Instead of the one good dinner a-year which Virtue eats, the convicted felon gets, like his brother DIVES, sumptuous fare every day. Instead of his nine or ten hours a day at the plough-tail or at turnip-hoeing, the gentleman laid up in lavender and the gaol is at the utmost called upon to turn a crank for three hours and a half, but this only for a month or two—an amount of work which is so excessive that it is soon afterwards reduced to two hours a day. Instead of the bleak hill-side and the bivouac in the snow, which is the home of honesty, the thief has his cell warmed and padded, and is thoughtfully provided with an admirable contrivance for keeping his "poor feet" from even momentary contact with the dry asphalte floor; and his leisure hours are agreeably diversified by selections from an admirable library replete with the newest periodicals and works of biography, history, fiction, travels, and "astro-"theology," &c. Lord Palmerston once, and at this very place, Romsey, delivered himself of the sentiment — which must have been more pleasing to Hampshire matrons than to Hampshire divines—that all children are born naturally good. Hampshire must be privileged with an immunity from actual, as well as from original, sin, if its sons can stand the contrast between the rewards of honesty and reguery. Hogarth took Industry to the Mansion House and Idleness to the gallows; but we have grown wiser. Satan tempts by making rich, not by making poor. Laudatur et alget is enough for honesty.

Lord Carnaryon had an up-hill fight of it in his attempt to impress upon the conscript fathers of Hampshire the very simple consideration that perhaps the present prison system wanted revision. From fifty resident squires and magistrates he only secured, by a majority of two, a committee of inquiry. The Hampshire magistrates thought, and were perhaps justified in thinking, that a motion for inquiry was a tacit censure of the existing system; and, in spite of Lord Carnaryon's conventional disclaimer of any intention to cast any imputation on the wisdom, discretion, and public spirit of the visiting magistrates, no doubt it was a censure. The censure is by no means premature; and though the Hampshire magistrates are probably right in saying, through their mouth-piece Lord Henry Cholmondeley, that they are better, or at least no worse, than their neighbours, yet we owe Lord Carnaryon thanks for showing the abuses to which the present system, even under the most favourable auspices, is open. It may be quite true that in some county prisons there is actually no provision whatever for making the convicts do even the slightest amount of hard labour; but it is mere juggling with figures to say, as Lord Henry did, that the Hampshire prisoners only cost 1s. 9\frac{1}{2}d. per head per week. Nor, after all, is this the question. It is, whether in prisons there should be any punitive element at all — whether a criminal should be made to suffer, or whether a gool is a mere House of Solomon for conducting experiments in planting and cultivating exotic virtues in unnatural and uncongenial soils. The Hampshire example may be set down as a typical one. It is not an extreme case, and the facts alleged

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d n d by Lord Carnarvon it was not even attempted to dispute. The resistance to his motion was, as we have said, based upon the very irrelevant grounds that there were prisons worse than that at Winchester, and that to grant the inquiry was to pass a vote of censure on the magistrates.

What is most valuable in Lord Carnaevon's statement is the historical form that it takes. The present system is of fifteen years' growth; and is one of gradual and normal development all in one direction. In 1848 the system was velopment all in one direction. In 1848 the system was arranged at Winchester—a system, be it remembered, only for that class of criminals to whom sentences not exceeding two years' imprisonment are awarded; the very class towards which, even according to Sir Joshua Jebb himself, some severity may, and must be, exercised. This is not the question of transportation—not the question of Dartmoor and Chatham. We are not invited to any discussion between the respective merits of the English and Irish systems. Here is a prison which only takes in convicts on short sentences, which prison which only takes in convicts on short sentences, which is meant to be punitive, and with its dietary and labour-table intended to be deterring in character, but which in fifteen years gradually assumes the character of an hotel, awarding its inmates two hours a day labour, ten hours sleep, and twelve hours employed in eating, education, the pursuits of literature, and the conversation of friends. As to hard labour, from the very first it was only nominal at Winchester. Crank-work and the treadmill is a travestie of real work, and we are convinced that no treadmill is a travestie of real work, and we are convinced that no substantial good will be done by prison labour until it is used with a view to supporting the prison itself. Even on the great works at Chatham and Portland, four convicts do only the work of a single independent labourer; and even as a matter of reformation it is the very worst policy possible to give a convict that sort of artificial and non-productive work—which is all that the crank and treadmill is—which will disgust him with real work for the rest of his life. The opponents of Lord Capparages, motion admit that the original nents of Lord CARNARVON's motion admit that the original introduction of hard labour into Winchester Gaol was not with a view to prison discipline or punishment at all; the only thing the magistrates thought of was reformation. And with this single object in view, every restriction that can make prison life repulsive has been either withdrawn or modified. Hard labour, for whatever purpose it was introduced, has been so far superseded, that, to keep the prisoners in health, outdoor exercise has taken its place, and to such an extent that it is a relaxation. Whether it is confined to walking and marching, or whether gymnastic exercises and calisthenic pursuits, cricket and a fives'-court, have been introduced, we are not told. We suspect that this, or something like it, has taken place, for Sir Joshua Jebb informs us "that a more "healthy and exhilarating kind of exercise has been substi-tuted for the listless walk in the separate yards." It is the champagne of the parallel bars and giant steps, we suppose, instead of the dead small beer of the regulation tramp. At any rate, the same considerate care which supplies the felon with a footstool ought to give him a football. In such a school, of course, the silent system and the separate system can have no place. Out-of-door exercise implies free and open communication among the prisoners, and in the intervals of the lazy crank work, or in the pauses of sauntering round the exercise yard, the lodgers in the County Hotel exchange edifying experiences of the past and plans for the future.

One of the most curious things about prisons and punishments is that no figure, and no phrase, and no word is to be construed in its natural sense. The Arabic numerals have one meaning in the world, and another within the prison walls. Words are no longer signs of ideas, nor figures the symbols of facts. Two years in the judge's mouth means eighteen months in the warder's books; hard labour means two hours' daily relaxation; and the diet table must be construed with an addition of one-fifth for extra diet. What is the result? That in this very Winchester Gaol, arising from the unrestrained communications going on among the prisoners, a mutiny was lately organized which might have led to the most serious consequences. And this picture of Winchester Gaol is only that of every county gaol in the kingdom. It is a system cruel to the prisoner, because it really does him no good. It is cruel to the country, because it acts as an incentive to crime. It is expensive to the rate-payer; unjust to justice, whose awards it sets aside; unjust to honest poverty, by giving all the substantial comforts of life to the felon; and discreditable to the intelligence of the country, because it shows that we cannot in practice discriminate between excessive severity and excessive lenity, and, last and worse of all, because it deprives punishment of its most important element — that of personal suffering.

SUBSCRIPTION LISTS.

TEXTS of Scripture are often dangerous tools. In the days of controversy about pews and open seats, when one side quoted St. James about the man in the gold ring and goodly apparel, the other party appealed from the "Epistle of straw" to the Gospel itself. We are bidden to enter into our closet and shut our door; "Is not my pew my closet, and how can I shut to the door in an open seat?" In the like sort, when a clergyman, whose church was adorned with no less than three galleries one over the other, pleaded for the removal of at least the uppermost of the three, he was sternly told that gallery above gallery was an apostolic institution, seeing that, when Paul was preaching, Eutychus fell from the third loft. It might not have been hard to argue that, if this fact proved the antiquity, it also proved the danger, of the arrangement. So, especially as the Articles forbid any passage of Scripture to be so explained as to be repugnant to any other, one may be uncertain whether the precept to let our light shine before men commands us, or whether the precept about doing alms in secret forbids us, to have our contributions to Lancashire Distress commemorated in the advertising columns of the Times. Perhaps, a spirit at once devout and discreet may lead us to think that the two apparently contradictory orders show that neither practice is of universal obligation, but that either privacy or publicity may be lawfully courted, according to the circumstances of the case.

stances of the case.

It is, of course, possible that a subscription list may be employed to pander to the vanity of the persons whose names are found in it—that people may give simply in order to see themselves recorded as givers, and in order that other people may praise the liberality which prompted the gift. But to say this is to say little more than that a list of subscriptions, like everything else, is capable of being abused. In almost every case where a subscription is desirable at all, it is desirable that some of the subscribers should have their names publicly known. In every district, and on every subject, there are names which carry weight, whose presence is a kind of guarantee for the nature of the undertaking, and whose absence would cast a certain suspicion upon it. There must be something wrong in a diocese or a parish where the name of the Bishop or the Rector is not naturally looked for as the indispensable credential of any religious or charitable work. There is, therefore, no estentation in recording their gifts, even though the gift may be unavoidably so small as to be simply such a credential rather than any substantial assistance. And, in many cases, it is desirable to know not only who gives, but how much he gives. This need not arise from any impertinent curiosity, or from any unworthy notion of regulating our own gifts by those of others. It need not spring either from a shabby wish to shelter niggardliness under the shadow of a rich man who gives sparingly, nor yet from an ostentatious wish to shame him by our greater liberality. The amount given by men who are at once liberal and well versed in the matter in hand, is really proper to be known. Their amount will often be a real guide to the amount which may fairly be due from others, whether richer or poorer than themselves, who have not the same personal knowledge of the object sought after. This of course applies mainly to local objects, or objects of a special nature. In a great national call, like the distress in the cotton distr

from the Lord Mayor or the Manchester Central Committee, and he submits to what is really the easiest form of receipt. And we certainly think that most people would consider it simpler and more modest to put their real names and addresses, rather than to lurk under the disguise of "X. Y." or "P. Q." or a "Well-Wisher," or a "Patriot," or a "Poor Christian." To say nothing of the chance of there being other P. Q.'s and Poor Christians, there is always about this sort of thing a sort of latent odour of Pharisaism, a kind of silent rebuke to others, which is far from pleasing. We never think quite so well of the unknown P. Q. as we do of the equally unknown John Smith; and when we see a subscription paraded as a "Widow's Mite," we are tempted to suspect that the mite really comes out of a very comfortable jointure.

The subscription-list, then, on the whole, must be submitted to as a necessary evil. When a man's position, either local or general, is such that his name is of value to any cause, he must submit, as to any other necessity of his position, to see his name paraded about rather more than is pleasant to his feelings. Other people may look at their names in the Times simply as a form of receipt, and may comfort themselves with the thought that but few, either of friends or enemies, will take the trouble to think whether they are there or not. Doubtless, if any mer of escape presents itself, a peaceable man will cling to it. there is a gathering for Lancashire distress in his parish church, he will throw in his gift there, rather than go through the trouble and parade of sending it to the Lord Mayor or the Manchester Committee. If, like Mr. Spurgeon, he has hundreds to send, and

official "deacons" to carry it for him, that is another matter. Such men are a law to themselves and to nobody else; such an exceptional light may fairly be set to shine on a candlestick as big as that in the Spanish Cathedral, where a chorister fell into the wax and was scalded to death. We do not exercise ourselves in great matters which are too high for us. We counsel those only who are lowly enough to be content with ordinary agencies, and who, among ordinary agencies, will pick out that which has least fuss and trouble about it. The alms-dish and the printed subscription-list may each be quite right under different circumstances. It is certain that either of them is much better than the laborious attempt to serve two masters by way of a charity ball vicariously to comfort the sorrows of the mourner, or a charity dinner vicariously to assuage the appetite of the hungry.

But we must seriously warn all charitable persons, and especially all promoters of charitable subscriptions, that there is an evil afloat which, if it is not speedily stopped, will hinder all people from putting their names down in any subscription-list at all. There seem to be people who make it their trade to watch every such list which appears in the newspapers, and who at once make a raid upon every name which is to be seen in them. These charitable touters sit lurking in the thievish corners of the streets, and pounce out upon any unwary Christian, patriot, or other benevolent person who may chance to pass by. The moment a

charatable touters sit lurking in the thievish corners of the streets, and pounce out upon any unwary Christian, patriot, or other benevolent person who may chance to pass by. The moment a name appears in the papers, its unlucky owner is directly worried by the agents of half-a-dozen societies, each demanding his aid for their own special nostrums. That this sort of system is really followed, and that people are thus employed to watch the subscription-lists, is proved by a very simple piece of evidence. It naturally often happens that in a subscription-list some little errors are made in names and addresses. A man's handwriting is errors are made in names and addresses. A man's handwriting is not perfect; so, perhaps, his name is spelled wrong, or his initials are not accurately copied. Or, again, a man naturally dates from his own house or village. The subscription-list as naturally cuts him down, for shortness sake, to his post-town only. In such cases, a man's vanity is nettled by the indignity of being thought to live in his post-town; while, on the other hand, it is mollified by finding his celebrity so great that the post-town is practically quite direction enough. Well, let us suppose that, by one of these easy processes, "J. Tomkins, Esq., of X Court, Z borough," is cut down into "T. Tomkins, Esq., of Z borough;" that a dignified "Thomson" is made to suffer under the plebeian "p"; that a true Norman or Macedonian "Philipps" has his letters shuffled about till he is degraded into an every-day "Phillips." In a day or two, the benevolent man receives a deluge of circulars, tracts, affectionate appeals, addressed, not to his usual name or his usual address, but to such modifications of them as may have appeared in the subscription list. He gives, say, to the Hartley Colliery Accident, and he is at once implored as a dear friend to prop up a tottering Society for Visiting the errors are made in names and addresses. A man's handwriting is say, to the nartley Collery Accident, and he is at once improved as a dear friend to prop up a tottering Society for Visiting the Indigent Blind. He is rash enough to send something for the healing of Garibaldi's foot, and he is at once seized on—perhaps as an implied enemy to the Pope—to be bothered into helping the circulation of little books in defence of the true faith. It is evidently a case of cause and effect; the extra flight of petitions

evidently a case of cause and effect; the extra flight of petitions always comes within a few days after the subscription appears in the Times; it always comes to the name and address exactly as given there, with exactly such abbreviations, exactly such slips of pen or press, as may have found their way into the printed list.

The agents of religious societies probably think that any charitable person is fair game—that he may be knocked down anyhow, as the accuser of Strafford (unlike modern country gentlemen) argued might be done with a fox, as distinguished from a hare or a stag. All stratagems are said to be fair in love and war, and of love and war the life of the religious world may be said to be made up. But a plain man who is neither hunter, lover, nor warrior, may perhaps complain at finding himself entrapped according to the rules of any of those gentle sciences. Because a man has given to one thing which he cares about, why should he be directly worried to give to half-adozen things which he does not care about? Because a man gives to one call of simple humanity, or to another call of political sentito one call of simple humanity, or to another call of political sentito one call of simple humanity, or to another call of political sentiment, why should he be thought specially anxious to distribute small tracts headed, How do I know that the Bible is true? It is quite possible that an admirer of Garibaldi may also be an admirer of Bishop Colenso, and, if so, he will hardly be converted from his errors by testimonials from bargemen and omnibus conductors, or by extracts from the Brighton Gazette. The coolness of the following circular seems to us worthy of all admiration:—

I am trying (p.v.) to raise a fund for the free distribution of my little books to the large gathering of all nations, and especially of our own people, who are visiting London during the Great Exhibition. Will you kindly aid me with a donation? The first one, How do I know that the Bible is true? which I enclose, has been translated into French, German, Italian and Spanish.

Yours faithfully,

Paddington, W.

Paddington, W.

The Indigent Blind Visiting Society go on another tack. They send letters to people who have never given them anything, and who indeed never heard of them at all, addressing them as if they were old friends and supporters. That is, we suppose, a man who is thus thanked for support which he never gave will feel himself bound, for very shame, to give something for the future. But a man must be very green to be caught by this sort of thing. But perhaps the Corresponding Secretary thought that none but those

who were very green would give to the Garibaldi Surgical Relief Fund, and that those who did so were just the people to be shot down for the benefit of the Indigent Blind.

Here, then, is the Blind Circular, of which we can only say that we are sorry that a society which has a really good object in view should stoop to such discreditable tricks:—

INDIGENT BLIND VISITING SOCIETY.

27 Red Lion Square, W.C. September 24

September 24, 1862.

It is with much pleasure I enclose the Twenty-seventh Annual Report of this Society, from which you will discern what extent of relief habeen given through the kind means received from your sympathy, over a greater extended class of poor, but grateful recipients than in previous years.

The past year has been one of great distress and stringent means, and had not been for the kind legacy mentioned in the Report, the hands of the formittee would have been crippled; they have to regret the great expense ecessarily incurred by the appeals to a benevolent public, but they had no their resource to meet their increased expenditure, and hope now you will out to stand by their exertions with increased donations and subscriptors.

And are, Sir,
Yours faithfully,
William Smpson,
Corresponding Secretary,
their hanks

This, we think, is enough. Over-zealous agents, in their hankering after golden eggs, will, before long, kill their goose. If the fact of a man giving to one thing makes him at once a mark for all who want to get money for any pet project of their own, people will soon button up their breeches' pockets and give to nothing but to objects at their gates, which do not need the intervention of paper and iak at all.

GLOOM.

WE have had in England so unbroken a reign of peace and substantial prosperity for many years that we can scarcely imagine what it would be to undergo a national calamity such as the defeat at Fredericksburg—a defeat coming as the close of an unbroken series of disasters, and uniting the mortification of a hopeless struggle with the regret awakened by a vast and unavailing sacrifice of life. The gloom that overshadowed the North during the first few days of indignation and despair appears to have far exceeded the depression produced by any other event of the war. That this gloom was universal and intense may be confessed by Americans without the least fear that Europeans doubt their passive courage. Whatever other virtues the North may have displayed or failed to display, no one can question that it has shown a patience under misfortune, and a readiness to continue in a course proved to be dangerous and difficult, which amply testify that it has in abundance what is termed "the bull-dog tenacity of the Anglo-Saxon race." The gloom that settled on them was a gloom which every other nation would have manifested in at least an enemal degree and bull-dog tenacity of the Anglo-Saxon race." The gloom that settled on them was a gloom which every other nation would have manifested in at least an equal degree; and it is only because their misfortune gives us an opportunity of seeing how nations behave, or would behave, under a very serious reverse, that it is worth while to study in detail the picture of their humiliation. It is curious to inquire what are the prominent feelings of a people under such circumstances. The better and higher minds have of course their own thoughts, and attempt to judge ascaluly as they can the causes and the consequences tempt to judge, ascalmly as they can, the causes and the consequences of the calamity. But ordinary people are occupied with thoughts worthless in themselves, but worth studying simply because they are natural to ordinary people. In the hour of national gloom, and of the depression attendant on a sudden national defeat and mortification, we may like to know what are the sentiments which fill prost weighly the housest of silly simple people, that is, of the great most readily the breasts of silly simple people—that is, of the great mass of the nation. We turn to the letter which Manhattan wrote after the news of Fredericksburg had arrived, and we find expressed the thoughts which, in some shape or other, rose, we may be sure, in the minds of thousands of average Americans. What we want to estimate is the tenour of the reflections which such a disaster excites in a man foolish enough to be a fair sample of the more foolish of his countrymen; and this is a qualifica-tion which Manhattan evidently possesses in an extraordinary

The first and uppermost thought in the mind of a man like Manhattan is abuse of the Government—an abuse in this case altogether justifiable, and from which the wisest of men would not refrain. But the ordinary citizen abuses the Government, not so much to censure the past on intelligible grounds, or to give warnings with regard to what is still to come, as to secure the satisfaction of view of the past of the past of the satisfaction of view of the past of the past of the satisfaction of view of the past warnings with regard to what is still to come, as to secure the satisfaction of using strong language about eminent men. Strong language is a great comfort to many people—a much greater comfort than quiet persons in quiet times would imagine. It cheers a man, and it cheers a nation under disaster, to have a good fling of abuse at a conspicuous person. And the habits of American life permit much more personality in abuse than we should think in good taste. Thirty or forty years ago our language about public men was much stronger than it is now, and the regular party journalist of the era of the Reform Bill would scarcely have hesitated to speak of a political adversary as Manhattan speaks of the first magistrate of the Republic. The burden of his complaint is, that there is no means of letting Mr. Lincoln know the truth, and of making him understand what the nation feels about him and his administration. "While telling his nasty stories and anecdotes, no man's voice would

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reach him." This will remind English readers of the sort of censure that fell to the lot of Lord Aberdeen's Government in the dark days of the Crimean war, only that in the England of these latter days there is more reticence as to the persons of those abused. It is to be observed that the American abuse is not very violent, as it sometimes undoubtedly is in periods of national trial. The relief which abuse brings to the ordinary man need not be that of mere vehement vituperation. It is enough that the superiority of the abuser should be displayed by his power of selecting the first persons in the State as the objects of his abuse. The pleasure of describing Mr. Lincoln as rendered impervious to the voice of reason by a fondaces for telling anecdotes, gives a man like Manhattan enough vent for his feelings in this direction. Of course, if the disaster led to a real internal struggle, then the abuse would grow much louder and stronger; but without political action going on around him, a man of humble position is content to have his little thrust at the authorities without going to any great length of violence.

Another characteristic of the class of persons we are speaking of, when they are excited by a national crisis, is that they despise the little alleviations of misery, and the existing sources of comfort, that are left to them. It seems perfectly trivial to take any heed of small and contingent advantages. To dwell on them appears a derogation from the majesty of misfortune. Manhattan cannot bear to think that any good can come of any of the minor efforts made by the North. "From Banks no one cares to hear; every one curses him, his expedition, and those who sent him off." And it is with positive exultation that he is able, on a subsequent day, to record that "Another of those infernal maptraps, the M. Sandford steamer, of the still more cursed Banks's expedition, having on board Soo soldiers, was lost in Tenth Harbour." How matural this feeling is to the human heart may be guessed from the conspicuous pla

of a statesman. The ordinary man is ordinary because he gives way to the puerile satisfaction of thinking that it is a universal clatter with which misfortune stuns him.

Then, again, it is natural to weaker vessels under depression to long for some great and violent remedy, to advocate some radical change, and yet to despise the remedy they fancy they wish for, and to ridicule the very change they insist on. This arises from the future they dream of having no reality to their minds. They cannot undertake to say whether what they think good is not, after all, very bad. They like to give hope and fancy the reins, and discover consolation in the prospect of having something quite new; and yet they are conscious that there may be a thousand objections to what they propose, and they cannot be at the trouble of considering what these objections are. Manhattan wishes for a dictator, and almost pins himself to declaring that Fremont may be looked on as the most likely man. But he is aware that the dictatorship of Fremont is a rather poor solution of a great national difficulty. He will not give up the pleasure of overthrowing American liberty in a general ruin by establishing a military tyranny; but then he does not like to treat this pleasure as a serious one. So he affects to think that Fremont's best claim may be that he is utterly unfit. "Fremont is about as great an ass as any of our military generals, perhaps he is the most unmitigated one. Therefore, as our best generals have turned out scalliwags, who knows but our poorest may turn out a great trump, win victories over the rebels, and become dictator and master of the situation?"

Lastly, gloom almost always begets a feeling of levity, which is a reaction from it, and an atonement to men for the trouble they have been at in enduring a painful feeling. The particular direction it takes in America is that of idolising persons to idolise whom is to make their own national commanders unheroic. After Pope's defeat, it was said that every one in Washington was wild

now. He would be an idol, and a jewelfer would clear 100,000 & (in paper) by selling his likeness set in breast-pins for females." Let us hope that Manhattan exaggerates, and that the women of New York—with all the odious assumption and sham modesty and pretension which distigure so many of them—would scarcely go so far as to wear the image of a prize-fighter on their breast-pins as a consolation for having Burnside as their general. But although this is an extreme way of putting the feeling, there can be no doubt that the feeling exists; and that it is felt by many minds to be a solace, under

mortification and serious grief, to seize on some little absurd external mode of testifying the bitterness of their hearts. There is even a subtle pleasure and pride in having this sign one of a trivial kind, and in obtruding it with a forced or spontaneous levity. The instances in which this sentiment revealed itself, and the strange shapes it took, in the Reign of Terror and throughout the earlier stages of the French Revolution, are notorious. The French character, perhaps, is altogether more disposed to exhibit it in its strongest light than any other. But it is sure to be found, in some shape or other, in every nation; and as we have already said, we are looking at what the inferior part of the Northern nation has shown itself under gloom, not as indicating any peculiar faults or shortcomings, but as typical of what every nation would present, under similar circumstances, in a greater or less degree.

THE CONDITION OF LANCASHIRE.

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The elaborate returns of the Central Relief Committee, coupled with Mr. Farnall's reports, leave very little to be desired in the way of information as to the actual condition of Lancashire, and the means in operation for relieving the distress. The machinery for obtaining and reducing the statistics has been so short a time at work that no very great reliance can be placed on any except the December report, which extends to the last week of the year. Returns were published in the last week of November, and, if they had been free from error, it would have been practicable to ascertain whether the distress was increasing or diminishing, and what hopes might reasonably be indulged for the future. But the large discrepancy as to the total number of workpeople, both in and out of employment, is so great as to proclude any but the most uncertain inferences from such a comparison. In November, the whole operative population of the distressed districts was returned as 490,757. In December, the same population is said to comprise 529,395 workpeople. There are, therefore, nearly 40,000 factory-people included in the last return, of whom no account whatever was taken in November. Whether the omission occurred chiefly with respect to those who were still in full work, or wholly or partially out of employ, there is no possibility of saying, except that it is more likely that the numbers actually at work would be accurately returned than those of whom their employers had more or less lost sight. But if the relative state of affairs in November and December is not easily to be ascertained, there is probably but little error in the account which is presented of the actual condition of Lancashire at the close of the year.

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little error in the account which is presented of the actual condition of Lancashire at the close of the year.

Broadly speaking, the area of the distress may be said to include a population of more than 1,000,000 persons dependent on cotton industry. Of these about half—or, according to the return, 529,395—are the actual workers. In ordinary times the whole number would be busy throughout the week, earning wages which are estimated at fully 250,000. These earnings are now reduced by a weekly loss of 168,000. Of this sum about 64,000. is replaced by the relief given by the Poor Law Boards and the Committees, so that the aggregate weekly loss may be set down at about 100,000. The number of those upon whom this deprivation falls may be estimated either from the returns of workpeople out of employment, or from the lists of the recipients of relief. The whole number entirely or partially deprived of work is given as 409,000; and about double that number, or 818,000, will represent the population depending on such diminished earnings, the general calculation being that each worker supports one other person besides himself.

besides himself.

If we turn to the relief lists, we find that 415,000 persons were in receipt of assistance, either from the Guardians or the Relief Committees. Roughly speaking, therefore, nearly half of those who have suffered by the suspension of work are still capable of supporting themselves on their diminished earnings, while the remainder are more or less exclusively dependent on the law or on charity for their subsistence. Formidable as the army of recipients may appear, the proportion who are able even now to struggle against their difficulties is large enough to show that the spirit of the population has not yet become demoralised by the dangerous, though necessary, assistance of charity. The fact, too, that the relief given does not much exceed one-third of the loss of wages is some guarantee against the most fatal, because the most lasting. besides himself. relief given does not much exceed one-third of the loss of wages is some guarantee against the most fatal, because the most lasting, evil which the distress could lead to. The symptoms of recovery—if, indeed, any are discernible—are for the present too slight to justify any fear of excessive relief; but when the tide shall have manifestly turned, some care will be necessary on the part of Committees—furnished, as most of them probably will be, with abundant funds—lest their charitable work should surpass the bounds within which it must be kept, to avoid moral evils even more to be deplored than the distress which has justly excited so universal a feeling of compassion. Up to this time, the aid that has been given, though sufficient to avert anything like actual starvation, has left hardship enough to render the life of a pensioner on public bounty far from attractive; and however stern the doctrine may seem, it is essential that the conditions of relief should continue to be such as not to discourage the resumption of labour, even

seem, it is essential that the conditions of reflet should continue to be such as not to discourage the resumption of labour, even at low wages, when the opportunity may return.

The funds at the disposal of the various Committees have amply kept pace with the necessity. Besides weekly contributions which are already promised or certain to come in to a large amount, there is a balance in hand of 567,000l., of which the Central Committee helds more than 300,000l. This fund will suffice to

maintain the present scale of relief for twelve weeks, and with the future additions which can be relied on, Lancashire may be said to be safe for the next three or four months. This, however, assumes that the burden on the Relief Committees will not be very largely increased, either by the adoption of a more bountiful scale of assistance, or by the transfer of recipients from the Union authorities. There are some signs of a movement in both of these directions; and this, far more than the want of funds, is the risk which the Executive Committee will have to guard against. The increase in the measure of relief has, as we have already said, not yet gone beyond what charity requires and prudence allows, but the tendency to shift the burden of relief from the rates to the Committees does appear from the last return to be rapidly gaining strength. To a considerable extent, the exhaustion of the poorer class of ratepayers may in requires and prudence allows, but the tendency to shift the burden of relief from the rates to the Committees does appear from the last return to be rapidly gaining strength. To a considerable extent, the exhaustion of the poorer class of ratepayers may in many localities justify the Guardians in making their own share of a common burden as light as possible; but it is difficult to reconcile the returns which are now published with the assurance which has been given that the reduction in the number of the recipients of Poor Law relief is due entirely to the partial resumption of work. The broad facts are that the pensioners on the Committees have increased by nearly 50,000 in the last month, while the recipients of Poor Law relief have fallen off by 11,000; and the list of those who are relieved by the Guardians alone, without any aid from the Committees, is still more largely reduced. It is possible that all who have been fortunate enough to obtain work have been drawn from the Poor Law lists, while every fresh case of destitution has come upon the Relief Committees, but without some more specific information, it would seem that there must be going on, to a greater or less extent, a gradual transfer from the dependents on the Poor Law to the recipients of public charity. The proportions in which the burden of relief is divided are, moreover, extremely different in different places; and it would seem that the energy displayed by Ashton and several other conspicuous Unions, has served to veil considerable shortcomings in some other districts. The truth appears to be, that the amount of local contributions, whether in the shape of rates or subscriptions, has but little influence on the amount of relief accorded. If the Union does its duty heartily, the necessity for grants from the Central Committee is diminished: while in those towns where the Guardians and influence on the amount of relief accorded. If the Union does its duty heartily, the necessity for grants from the Central Committee is diminished; while in those towns where the Guardians and the inhabitants exhibit less public spirit, the deficiency is made good by additional supplies from the general fund. To levy an adequate rate, and to stimulate local benevolence, have become rather points of honour than matters of necessity; and the more 'credit is due to those communities which have not sought to escape their fair share of the burden. That an equal measure of energy and self-sacrifice should be displayed in every town, under such circumstances, was not to be expected; and the value of the Act which enables the more liberal Unions to throw a portion of their rate upon the whole county will soon be appreciated by those who have nobly done their duty, while the most sluggish will find that no ingenuity will exempt then force pharing it the necessary of a comment duty.

them from sharing in the performance of a common duty.

Perhaps, even more than the amount of the subscription raised, the large number of those who have given their time and labour to the work of administering the funds that have been collected— and the harmony with which, for the most part, these local bodies have worked under the direction of the central executive body—deserves a measure of public recognition which has scarcely yet been accorded. It is comparatively easy for the rich to give their thousands or hundreds, and for the great majority of the country to subscribe according to their means; but no one, be he rich or poor, can do his duty faithfully on a Relief Committee without an amount of sacrifice far beyond that which most pecuniary denotions represent. Nearly 120 of these volunteer Committees.

rich or poor, can do his duty faithfully on a Relief Committee without an amount of sacrifice far beyond that which most pecuniary donations represent. Nearly 150 of these volunteer Committees have now been devoting themselves for months to their self-imposed task, and, we may be sure, will continue to do so until the crisis shall have been fairly surmounted. Without their aid, the distribution of relief would have been a mere squandering of money, sometimes to good, but quite as often to evil purpose; and we may add, that without the effective superintendence and aid of the Central Committee, the local bodies would have found their difficult task almost impracticable.

Magnificent efforts have often been made to meet overwhelming calamities, but we know of no instance in which the machinery of relief has been organized with so much skill, and worked with so much zeal and patience, as on this trying occasion. The terrible Irish famine, when the potato failed for the first time, extended to a wider area and a much larger population. The aid provided — partly by voluntary subscriptions, but mainly by Parliamentary grants — was far beyond what the distress of the cotton districts has called for. But this assistance was not given without an amount of waste which was quite appalling, and it did not succeed entirely in preventing the ravages of actual famine and its attendant fever. As a triumph of charitable administration, the distribution of the Lancashire fund stands quite alone. It has fully and effectually grappled with the difficulty, and supplied every one with relief as ample as it was possible to give without incurring the bena of idleness. The noble patience of the sufferers has been acknowledged on every hand, and cannot be too highly appreciated; but the earnest purpose, and the steady discretion of those who have organized the measures of relief, are not less worthy of national recognition. To their exertions it is owing that the unlooked-for calamity which has fallen on our most important industrial di

remembered, not only with regret for the distress which has been endured, but with the consciousness that all that was possible has been well and wisely done to mitigate sufferings which could not be wholly averted.

THE ETHICS OF BLACKGUARDISM.

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"THE well-kept hound," says a fable which suggests an Oriental source, "once reviled the swine as a degraded creature, sunk in filth and sloth, who replied, 'My ancestor was the wild boar of the forest, yours was the savage cur who gnawed offal from the gibbet. We are each what the treatment of man, our master, has made us." And there never yet was a human society, perhaps, in which we might not justify the apologue by facts. There is generally a class of men, or perhaps various classes, whose occupation, though useful and perhaps necessary to society, is burdened with incidents of repulsiveness to most of us, or to some influential section among us. The office of public executioner has sunk to this mark, although in certain states of mediaval society it was reputed honourable. And its lapse in estimation is due to the progress of general refinement, which makes any process abhorrent which has for its object the infliction of human suffering, or the deprivation of human life. If, indeed, it had been possible, in surgery, to commit all painful operations, before the discovery of such anodynas as chloroform, to the hands of purely mechanical operators, acting merely under the directions of the scientific man, and to reserve to the latter merely the process of healing and painless remedies, it the latter merely the process of healing and painless remedies, it may be questioned whether the former class would not have sunk, in a similar way, to the level of a carrifer. Even as it is, with all the reputation of science to back him—and science has risen in all the reputation of science to back him—and science has risen in esteem, in modern times, somewhat in proportion as the handicraft of cruelty has fallen—it is doubtful whether there are not many middle-aged single ladies who would shrink from a dentist as a general acquaintance. The individual feels much where society is little better than neutral. It is the individual who feels alike the painful remedy and the eventual relief from dentistry and surgery, and who sets off the latter against the former. It is society, on the contrary, which experiences relief when a malefactor is executed, and of this relief every individual has an infinitesimally fractional share. But each, in his individual capacity, feels that a human neck has been dislocated, and a solemn sense of the ordinary sanctity of human life would make his gorge rise at being asked to dine with that valuable public functionary who practically vindicates the majesty of law in its last resort.

The feelings with which other lower members of the executive of justice, even in civil, to say nothing of penal, cases, are re-

The feelings with which other lower members of the executive of justice, even in civil, to say nothing of penal, cases, are regarded, are somewhat similar. The "bum-bailiff" has never been a popular character. And here we find an example that comes home to the point. For the executioners, whatever may have been the case in earlier times, are now so few that they can scarcely form an appreciable class. He who attaches either person or goods for debt acts, albeit under civil process, in a penal character; and, next to human life, sanctity attaches among us to the liberty of the person and the security of the home; and of such functionaries, in a State where such arrests and seizures are legal, there will always be a sufficiently large number to fasten public attention as a class, and provoke the prejudices of the many who owe at all times, and of the many more who owe at some time more than they can pay. Persons who follow callings of a filthy or repulsive character come in for a modified share of the stigma. Tax-gatherers are known to have an ugly screw in their hands, and the sympathy of the public is still on the side of the screwed and against the screwer. A great poet's feelings towards "the Exciseman" have been recorded in a well-known lyric, and he struck a deep chord in the popular bosom when he so immortalized his hate. It is tacitly imputed to all these functionaries, that they discharge their duties more efficiently in proportion as they divest themselves of some of the tenderer feelings of humanity; and that if their calling does not find them, in common parlance, "brutes," it leaves them so. And this animosity of society has been embodied in a tradition which regards butchers as disqualified from serving on a jury in cases of life and death.

It would be easy to show that the feeling against such persons, however, in a certain sense, natural, leads to a practical injustice.

on a jury in cases of life and death.

It would be easy to show that the feeling against such persons, however, in a certain sense, natural, leads to a practical injustice. We are at present rather concerned to show that it is mischievous. The direct consequence is that, losing self-respect through a feeling of the prejudice under which they labour, they lose with it the surest ordinary safeguard of morality, view themselves as pariahs, and become an antagonistic, and to a certain extent a dangerous, class. Banded together, as it were in self-defence, against social disesteem, they accept, with little effort at resistance, or perhaps with a hardy defiance, the temptations incident to their callings. They feel as Shylock felt, and justify it as Shylock did. They are thrust out from "respectable" society, and ally themselves with what is directly vicious, as having a common enemy. Thus a moral sink of society is formed by a confluence of elements, and good people hold their noses, shut their eyes, and turn away. turn away.

This seems directly applicable to the case of prize-fighters; and it might, we think, be easily shown that they have sunk into a lower moral state in proportion as the general feeling of society has been tinged with humanitarianism. That there is anything necessarily brutalizing in the compound of skill and hardihood which their business requires, in the necessary training, or in the

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combat itself, can never be shown. That a prize-fight is technically a breach of the peace, has nothing to do with the real question; save that, by making a thing unlawful, we so far degrade those who practise it, and so far tend to produce the evils alleged above. The power of enduring suffering, and of witnessing it, without giving way, is surely an attribute of manliness, and may be reckoned even as a physical basis of the Christian character. Self-defence, and the power of protecting the weak and defenceless, are surely social faculties worth cultivating at all times. To know what muscles to exert, and to have those muscles ready for use, against the grip of the garotter or the assault of the bully, is a comparatively cheap protection of the individual, and no superfluous benefit even to modern society. And whatever may be said of the natural tendencies of Englishmen, we cannot but think that these powers would generally droop and whatever may be said of the natural tendencies of Englishmen, we cannot but think that these powers would generally droop and dwindle in the total absence of all public and practical test, even as the average of mathematical cultivation would fall, if the wranglers' list, and all similar machinery, were summarily abolished. The knowledge that "sometimes we must box without the muffle" is the best security for earnestness in the pursuit of that command over physical force, of which the champion's belt is the highest guarantee. Fencing has sunk to an elegant accomplishment since society ceased to carry swords. Society will never cease to carry the weapons of nature, and it is desirable that it should be able to carry them with the best effect. Nor is the training of a man to do the best with his limbs and weight without its moral side. It involves a command of temper too; and this will often alone secure the use of the bodily advantages of which the advantages conveyed in the double caution of Polonius to his son:—

Beware of entrance to a quarrel; but, being in,
Bear it, that th' opposer may beware of thee.

Not only has the estimate which peace-mongers hold of the
military profession many points in common with the general
estimate of the prize-ring, but even the practice of the Bar has
often come in for similar strictures to those which are urged
against the latter. It is said that the advocate does his utmost to
browbeat the opposite witnesses, to abuse and vilify, or at least
depreciate and insinuate unworthy motives against, his adversary's
client; that his immediate object is not truth, but victory; that
he manipulates evidence, gives a false colour to facts, warps the
meaning of plain words, wrests the law to his side, appeals to the
known bias or probable prejudice of the jury, and seeks to sophisticate the judge. And it is urged with great plausibility that such
practices must deaden the mind to the value of truth, and tend to
make justice a game of chance, or, at best, of unscrupulous skill. meaning of plain words, wrests the law to his side, appeals to the homow his or probable prejudice of the jury, and seeks to sophisticate the judge. And it is urged with great plausibility that such practices must deaden the mind to the value of truth, and tend to make justice a game of chance, or, at best, of unscrupulous skill. We believe that the great security against our Bar sinking to the level which such arguments imply lies in the social esteem which the Bar enjoys. Litigation is, relatively, an evil, however necessary it may be. And more exasperation, rancour, and uncharitableness is probably stirred up in a single term in connexion with it, than has accompanied all the prize-fights that ever yet were fought. Social esteem keeps the barrister up, and lets the prize-fighter down. The ruffianism, the spells of wild inebriety alternating with the severity of training, and all the concomitant "blackguardism" which marks the lower members, and, perhaps, the larger number, of professional "fighting-men," have no root in their profession as such. It is the result of the degradation in which they are held, and of the social ban under which they are laid. There is no reason whatever why two men should not, as they shake hands first, go to work in a spirit of perfect chivalry, and enter the ring with the temper and the conscience of Bayard himself. It is the abhorrence of the "respectable" which makes them what they are. Society shuts its doors against them; but the bars of the lower grade of public-house are open, and there they are accordingly found. They are, in form of law, criminals, and make good their position by lawless lives. It is the old case of the Publican and the Pharisee. Society secures a little good of a lower sort, and has not the faith and the charity to venture for a higher one. The temper which we call "Pharisaism," for the sake of a distinctive term, is an element in all society which, having made some progress in civilization, finds it less trouble to throw up barriers than to pioneer path

on the whole has decided that there is a clear advantage in keeping it respectable. Withdraw that support, and—we will not say that actresses would become the most degraded of their sex, but—none but those already so degraded would accept the profession of the stage. All who had a character to lose would shiply acres. shrink away.

lession of the stage. All who had a character to lose would shrink away.

An interesting paper in the Spectator (No. 436), shows a very different tone both in the champions and in the public who witnessed their performances a century and a half ago. We have no doubt that Dick Steele really went to "Hockley-in-the Hole" and saw something like the combat between "Sergeant Miller" and the redoubted "Timothy Buck." Steele certainly was a man rather noted for a ready tenderness of feeling, and as far as possible removed from the popular character of a "brute." The fight, as he represents it, was conducted with swords, which must be allowed to have dangers from which our prize-ring is free. It is clear, however, that unless the tone he gives the affair be wholly false and artificial — a supposition which we have the best reasons for rejecting — the whole proceeding, though confessedly a diversion of "the lower order of Britons," yet enjoyed a far higher social and moral character than could be accorded to a prize-fight of our modern day, and that the champions were men respected in their station of society. Change of manners has annulled that respect, and all else has changed with it.

CASUAL SHEPHERDS.

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A LETTER appeared in the Times a few days ago from a correspondent signing himself "W. D. B.," in which the idle young men of London were strongly urged to devote their abundant spare time to visiting the poor. There is no doubt that in so doing he was not only acting from the purest intentions, but also representing a very popular view of Christian duty. Visiting the poor forms an essential portion of the received ideal of a Christian man or woman. The Roman Catholics go so far as to hold that it would be a great evil if, by any sudden increase in the world's prosperity, the poor ceased to exist, because there then would be nobody to visit. The commercial element in Protestantism is too strong to suffer our own moralists to go so far. But the idea that it is a positive duty in every one who is not absolutely prevented from doing it by press of labour, is very deeply rooted among us. Even hard work is not allowed as an excuse by moralists of the severer school. The week may be given to work, they say; but they add, without any conscious Hibernicism, there is always the day of rest, which can be given up to visiting the poor. No one would think of calling this precept in question if it were addressed merely to those who have special taste or opportunity for the work, or those who have special taste or opportunity for the work, or those who have special taste or opportunity for the work, or those who have special taste or opportunity for the work, or those who have special taste or opportunity for the work, or those who have special taste or opportunity for the work, or those who have special taste or opportunity for the work, or those who have special taste or opportunity for the work, or those who are willing to give themselves up to it as a profession. But W. D. B.'s letter, and the practice of the society he represents, bring the question up in a different form. Would it be desirable, as he suggests, that every one "should follow their money?" One cannot help looking with some nervousness a

unless you are doing them good—or, at least, no harm—at the same time.

A good deal of the confusion of thought that prevails upon the subject of visiting the poor is due to the fact that two very distinct operations are mixed together under one name. There is the visitor who gives, and the visitor who chats—the visitor who expends sixpence, and the visitor who expends sympathy. So far as the merely pecuniary branch of the system is concerned, one would have thought that casual visiting was, on the face of it, about the worst investment of a man's time that he could make. It is never a matter of indifference whether money given to the poor is given rightly or wrongly. It either does a great deal of good or a great deal of harm. Given to one person, it may tide him over a moment of difficulty, and rescue him from hopeless beggary. Given to another, it may merely supply him with the means of spending one more night at the gin-shop, and encourage his neighbours to do the like. It is not easy even for an experienced person always to distinguish between the two, and a West End man of fashion who gives a few spare afternoons to the work is almost certain to be taken in. He might as well embark upon a new Joint-Stock Bank without City advice, or adventure himself at Tattersall's without any knowledge of a horse. A stranger's impulse always is to relieve the cases of the greatest apparent wretchedness. A filthy cell, without a scrap of furniture but a heap of rubbish to lie on, mother and children emaciated and half-naked, are sights that seem to him to justify immediate and liberal relief. But if he acts on that idea he will probably be throwing his money into a bottomless well. Before night, his coin will have passed into the till of the public at the corner, and the room will be just as bare, the children just as starving as ever. Or possibly his relief may have put off the inevitable hour when the drunken couple will be unable to pay their rent, and will have to go into the work-house. All, therefore, that the casu

pone the only chance the children have of being fed, and the only chance the parents have of at least a temporary sobriety. Of course he makes equal blunders on the other side. Where the furniture and clothes have not as yet all been pawned, and the children look comparatively clean and the room tolerably tidy, he will not believe in genuine destitution. Yet very possibly this is a case in which a very slight assistance may determine the permanent lot in life of a whole family. The man has been ill, or has been hit hard by some change in trade; and the family are verging towards the close of a desperate struggle to keep their heads above water till better times return. With relief they may possibly float; without it they must certainly sink. A few shillings may make all the difference.

With these difficulties around them, the Household Brigade, if they do resolve personally to undertake the duty of almoners, will probably be converted into an unconscious society for promoting the sale of gin. To undertake it safely, they would require frequent practice in the administration of relief, long familiarity with the neighbourhood, something like a knowledge of the personal history of each family—in short, a set of acquirements which only a life devoted chiefly to that object could secure. Relieving distress is a profession, like any other. Tyros will always bungle at it; and casual visitors must remain tyros all their lives. The doctrine of the division of labour applies to this as strongly as to any other occupation. The idea that everybody is naturally fit for everything has been given up on this side of the Atlautic with regard to every vocation except the relief of distress. The accomplishments of driving a buggy and writing an article were, in Sydney Smith's time, supposed to be the natural and common property of all mankind. The prejudice in favour of ignorance has become more philanthropic in its ecope as time goes on, and is now confined almost entirely to the difficult and delicate task of distinguishing th of ignorance has become more parameters, and is now confined almost entirely to the difficult and delicate task of distinguishing the distress which may be alleviated from the distress which nothing can abate, because it springs from vicious habits. It appears to be assumed, because people relieve the poor out of a kindly feeling, that, therefore, they are bound to execute their intentions in an unbusinesslike and sentimental manner. A man may consent to become a trustee from the most unworldly motives; but if he proceeded to invest the trust-money on unworldly principles, he would very soon run foul of the Court of Chancery. A sensible man ought no more to give his alms, except through the hands of some clergyman or layman thoroughly familiar with the work, than an honest trustee would invest in lands or houses except through the agency of a man of business.

All this is so very obvious that it is quite clear that something All this is so very obvious that it is quite clear that something else is at the bottom of the minds of those people who urge visiting the poor as a universal duty. There is an idea that one of the ordinary occupations of every man who is well to do in the world ought to be to talk good to the poor. It may be in the way of a mere detail of spiritual experiences, or in the form of a stern reproof of the sins of which it is likely the poor man is guilty, or in the more unobtrusive guise of a plentiful supply of tracts. There are many advantages predicted as likely to result from such a practice. It will form a material assistance in the way of getting wild of Sunday afternoons: which, in a Protestant community, is a practice. It will form a material assistance in the way of getting rid of Sunday afternoons; which, in a Protestant community, is a serious recommendation. It will give the richer classes a better idea of the true life of the poor, and make them more thankful for their own lot. And it is likely to impress upon the person that talks good some part of the good he talks. This may be all that talks good some part of the good he talks. This may be all very true from the visitor's point of view. Where the work is undertaken as a disagreeable penance, its good effect, even on the visitor, may be doubted. But it never seems to occur to any one very true from the visitor's point of view. Where the work is undertaken as a disagreeable penance, its good effect, even on the visitor, may be doubted. But it never seems to occur to any one that the visitor is not the person whose interests ought to be chiefly co. ulted in the matter. No one dreams that the instrument in this process of self-purification may possibly object to the part he is made to play, or that he has any right to be heard in the matter if he does. Yet if W. D. B. will picture to himself the results of his teaching being followed to the letter by a large body of conscience-smitten guardsmen, he will acknowledge that the poor man would have a very fair locus standifor an objection. It would be wholesome if benevolent persons of easy circumstances would apply the golden rule to their dealings with the poor. Are the good people who go about from cottage to cottage, burdened with tracts and brimming with advice, exactly doing as they would be done by? Suppose that a body of artisans, seized with scruples of conscience upon the neglected state of the upper classes, were to walk round Belgravia, knocking at every door, and, having by some laches of the footman procured admittance, were to lecture the father of a family upon the nothingness of ambition, or the vanity of this world's goods, and the young ladies upon the wickedness of promiscuous dancing—would they meet with a very cheerful welcome? The intrusive apostle would certainly be turned out by the scuff of his neck, if he escaped being handed over to the police as a burglar in disgnise. Is it perfectly certain that the poor are entirely exempt from that strong feeling of resentment against intrusion which in all other classes is so deeply marked? Of course, if it is a question of bread and butter, they may be prudent enough to pocket their resentment. If alms are only to be had on the condition of listening to good advice, they will probably listen, and content themselves with an internal form of imprecation. But they will not like it a b

official position from the appearance of gratuitous insolence. But from any one else the poor man will probably think unasked good advice just as insolent as his adviser would think it if it were offered to him. It may fairly be doubted if religion is much advanced by being made the instrument for snubbing the poor man, and by including the poor to him his hittor dependence. and bringing home to him his bitter dependence.

THE ALABAMA'S CRUISE.

The Alabama's Cruise.

If the American war is in other respects useless, it certainly has the merit of affording to Europe some practical military lessons of very great value. Experiments are going on there of which we reap the benefit without having to bear the cost. The Confederates were good enough to show us, by the example of the Merrimac, what an iron-clad ship could do; and they have subsequently equipped the Alabama, as if to prove that wooden ships also can be made very troublesome to an enemy in active hands. It is, indeed, rather curious, after all the efforts that have been made here and elsewhere, to substitute iron for wood, to notice the discrepancy between widely-accepted theory and recent facts. It has been said on all sides, that the days of wooden ships-of-war were past, and yet at this moment the work in our dockyards upon iron ships is checked, in order to bring forward wooden ships which are urgently wanted for commission. The fashion in naval architecture was lately set by France, but now it seems that the lead in this branch of science is being assumed by those who are compelled to bring it into immediate practical seems that the lead in this branch of science is being assumed by those who are compelled to bring it into immediate practical application. The only Southern cruiser being what she is, Northern vessels of the same kind must be employed to try to capture her; and Britain also is obliged to send forth wooden representatives to see that neither South nor North infringe her rights. The Tuscarora watches for the Alabama, and the Leopard keeps an eye upon the Tuscarora. It is remarkable that, in an account of the fitting-out of Captain Semmes' famous ship which appeared lately in the Southana the writer heering he stating that account of the fitting-out of Captain Semmes' famous ship which appeared lately in the Scotsman, the writer begins by stating that "she is not, as is commonly supposed, an armour-plated vessel." If the supposition here noticed has been entertained, it must have originated in the impunity with which the Alabama has hitherto performed her mission of destruction. But she is simply a large wooden screw gunboat, very strongly built of the best material—that is, of sound British oak. Whether Captain Semmes, for his present purpose, preferred wood to iron, we do not know; but probably there was no choice open to him, because the building at Liverpool of an iron-plated ship for alleged commercial purposes would have been a fact to which the authorities could scarcely have refused particular attention.

But whatever was the motive for her construction, there she is,

scarcely have refused particular attention.

But whatever was the motive for her construction, there she is, constituting, in fact, the whole of the cruising navy of the Confederates, who certainly know what they are about in equipping ships as well as in other warlike matters. This single wooden vessel has for the last five months been doing as she pleases with Northern trade; and if her career should be arrested, it will almost certainly be by a ship of the same class. We do not expect to hear of any of the wonderful Yankee notions in iron ships being sent in chase of the Alubama, and still less of their having captured her. She is the sort of vessel which would be certain to be employed against our trade by any Power with which we might happen to be at war, and therefore it is desirable that we should be vell supplied with vessels of some sort able to protect that trade. This is a truth which, in our present ardour after shield-ships and other ingenious novelties, there was some danger of our overlooking; and we have reason to feel obliged to our American friends for putting us in mind of it. The whole career of the Alabama is indeed forcibly suggestive. She has been from first to last skilfully, and not very scrupulously, managed; but until the experiment had been tried, we should not have thought it possible for any combination of cleverness and audacity to have so long, with impunity, defied what may by comparison be called the accuracy and proves of the Luised States. But whatever was the motive for her construction, there she is, to have so long, with impunity, defied what may by comparison be called the enormous naval power of the United States. The story of the building and equipping of the Alabama, which has been copied from the Sectsman into the London newspapers, may fairly be compared, both for interest and drollery, with any scene either of Cooper or any other naval novelist. The cool violation of the neutrality of a harbour in the Azores, and the impudent pretexts by which the Fortuguese remonstrances were baffled, are incidents such as were not unfrequent in the wars of the last century; but they have an unfamiliar aspect in this. The Alabama, as is well known, left Liverpool last July, ostensibly on a trial trip. When she got out of the Mersey the ladies and gentlemen who had been invited for the excursion were sent back in a tug-boat; and having taken the North Channel in order to evade the Tuscarora, which was watching for her in St. George's Channel, she proceeded quietly to the Azores, and anchored in Terceira Roads after a fine and uneventful voyage. As an excuse for anchoring, it was pretended that her engines had broken down, and for a week her crew maintained an appearance of repairing them. It was expected that at the end of that time, a large barque would arrive from the Thames laden with guns and stores for the Alabama. During this interval, the curiosity of the Portuguese gave no small trouble to the suspicious-looking steamer's officers. The inhabitants of Terceira thought that their visitor had, for an English merchant-vessel, as she called herself, a strangely warlike aspect. They were told that her many ports were for ventilation in a warm climate, and that her numerous crew were to be employed in a surveying expedition; but they persisted in believing that they were entertaining an English frigate. to have so long, with impunity, defied what may by comparison be called the enormous naval power of the United States. The story

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The expected barque duly arrived; and her presence was accounted for by the representation that she had sprung a leak, which would require to be repaired before she could resume her voyage. The Portuguese accepted this further fiction, and placed the barque in a three days' quarantine. When only one day had expired, the cantain of the Alabama hauled alongside the barque, erected a pair of shears, and began hoisting the guns and stores which she contained into his own vessel. This proceeding brought off some of those little dry yellow men who really are Portuguese officials, but might easily be mistaken by an irreverent eye for a species of large ape which had been provided with uniforms and cocked hats by some freak of eccentric benevolence. These Portuguese efficials and their quarantine laws appear to exist chiefly for the purpose of making travellers, and especially invalids, miserable. Since they took possession of the Azores and Madeira they have contrived effectually to distinguish their acquisitions from the Happy Isles to which Ulysses longed to wander. Indeed, they have been so long used to bully and oppress feeble or diseased visitors, that they have grown almost as peremptory as Commodore Wilkes, or any other blustering representative of the United States. It may well be conceived, therefore, what was the fury of these shrivelled specimens of humanity when they beheld the Alabama communicating with a vessel which had not completed quarantine. To do the Portuguese only justice, they are quite capable of bullying the Warrior herself; and it is highly probable that the captain of that powerful man-of-war would knock under to them if they did. But the captain of the Alabama, although willing to use civility as long as it would serve, was also capable of being uncivil upon occasion. He told the Portuguese that the barque was in a sinking state, and that the immediate transfer of her cargo was necessary in order to reach and stop the leak. When this did not satisfy them, he feigned to get into a passion, a day, when another vessel joined the two which were thus engaged, having found like them an urgent reason for putting into Terceira Roads. This vessel was the British steamer, Bahama, having on beard Captain Semmes and other officers commissioned for the Alabama, and also men and guns for her. The Portuguese now lost patience, and insisted on the immediate departure of all three vessels. After some delay they did accordingly depart, but instead of putting out to sea they steered round to another bay in the same island, and there resumed the business of equipping the Alabama, until the Portuguese once more served notice of ejectment. By this time, however, all necessary use had been made of the neutral harbours. The Alabama had got her guns on board and put all things shipshape for her cruise against the Yankees, and the barque had delivered all her stores, and was ready to return to Cardiff to bring out a supply of coal for the Alabama's use.

return to Cardiff to bring out a supply of coal for the Alabama's use.

Now all this is really as good as a naval novel, and we are happy to observe that in spite of steam, telegraphs, and other presaic elements of modern warfare, there are hopes that some Cooper of the South may hereafter construct an interesting romance out of the exploits of the infant navy of the Confederates. Nevertheless, the Northern Americans can hardly be expected to see these things in a literary and artistic point of view. They not unnaturally complain that Captain Semmes committed a gross violation of Portuguese neutrality; and although on this side we have not the same keen personal interest in his proceedings, it cannot be denied that, to use a homely phrase, the Alabama and her consorts "came it very strong" at the Azores. Still both English and United States' ships have in former times paid but small respect to neutral limits, when the temptation was sufficient to disregard them. The best way of looking at the whole career of the Alabama is to suppose the United States to be the country where she was built, and England the country which is suffering by her active and successful cruise. Putting the matter in this point of view, we may be disposed to make some allowance for the angry vituperation which has been poured forth against us. The same newspaper which described the equipping of the Alabama has also published an account of a rencontre between a British steamer called the Thistle and the United States' cruiser Tuscarora, off Madeira. The Thistle is described as "the fastest screw-steamer hailing from the Clyde," and she was carrying "a very valuable cargo" to the Bahamas. We sympathize most entirely with the correspondent of the &catsman when he expresses his satisfaction that the British man-of-war Leopard happened to be at Funchal when the Twearora overhauled the Thistle, though his satisfaction that the British man-of-war Leopard happened to be at Funchal when the Twearora overhauled the Thistle, though at the same time it may be admitted that this fast steamer from the Clyde would naturally bear, in the eyes of a United States' captain, a somewhat suspicious character.

UNIVERSAL MEDICINES.

THERE are few things in Humphry Clinker much more amusing than the letter in which plain-spoken Mathew Bramble describes the company in the coffee-room at Bath. Of the thirteen who composed that memorable party, seven were lame by reason of gout, rheumatism, or palsy; three were maimed by accident, and the remainder were either deaf or blind. One, we are told, "was bent into a horizontal position like a mounted telescope, shoved in by a couple of chairmen." Another was nothing more than the "bust of a man set upright in a wheel

machine, which the waiter moved from place to place." Upon considering the countenances of these unfortunate beings a little attentively, Mr. Bramble discovered an old acquaintance in Rear-Admiral Balderick. He at once made himself known, and was greeted by what remained of the veteran in a manner more cordial than agreeable. "In saluting me," says Mr. Bramble, "he thrust the spring of his spectacles into my eye, and at the same time set his wooden stump on my gouty toe, an attack that made me shed tears in sad earnest." It is impossible for a feeling man to read of this motley group without wishing that they could have benefited by those wonderful discoveries of recent times which remove every human infirmity, and annihilate all the disorders, bodily or mental, that are liable to overtake us in our passage between the cradle and the grave. If the Hygeists, whose picture of Hercules sweeping out the Augean medical stable is still the great treat of prowling boys, could only have got hold of that party at Bath, they would, undoubtedly, have sent them into the world new men. By means of a simple medicine, the telescope gentleman might have transformed himself into an Adonis, the bust might have rendered itself a complete figure, and it would have gone hard if a course of pills, combined with the "vegetable mixture," had not done away with Admiral Balderick's wooden stump, and restored to him a leg of flesh and blood, even as certain milks and balms will make hair to grow on a bald head. A course of hygienic literature has convinced us that, except perhaps in this matter of wooden legs, there is no human ill that cannot be successfully dealt with by the "British College of Health." We have read tracts, pamphlets, almanacks, and "resolutions;" and if we are not yet entirely satisfied that life without Morison's Universal Medicines is a miserable burden, the reason must be that we have not been gifted with the fortitude and the faith to make a practical experiment.

Mr. James Morison, whose memory is commemorated in

not been gifted with the fortitude and the faith to make a practical experiment.

Mr. James Morison, whose memory is commemorated in that dismal thoroughfare, the New Road, by a lion which looks very much as though it were suffering under an over-dose of the celebrated pills, was a gentleman who sincerely believed in the value of his medicine. He died in 1840, and it is since that period that "Hygeism" has achieved its present dignified position. That the merits of the system are little appreciated even now is sufficiently plain. People still live who are troubled with palsy, gout, and rheumatism, or with diseased livers, like the person whom Mr. George Borrow met at Bethlegert, and who, as he tells us in his recent work, Wild Wales, was thrown into great tribulation through "an excess of bile, owing to his having left his licorice somewhere or other." A box of pills would have been quite as portable as the licorice, and less likely to be lost. It takes some time, however, for the merits of any medicine to become known, especially when the discoverers are modest, and refrain from attempting to gain publicity by advertising and puffing. Nevertheless, the Hygeists have done something in finding out that half the people who die are "poisoned" by their medical men, who "do not know what they are in the habit of prescribing." A resolution passed at the College of Health in July last, where the over-dosed lion stretches himself in painful unrest, protests against the impropriety of allowing doctors to give evidence at inquests. We quote the resolution in the spurious form of our language used by the College, and which may, perhaps, be called the Hygeic tongue:—

The That this Meeting considers the important office of Coroner, in cases

7th. That this Meeting considers the important office of Coroner, in cases of poisoning, is reduced to a complete farce, for the obvious reason that the doctors who present themselves to give evidence on behalf of the Crown are THEMSELVES THE PRINCIPAL ADMINISTRATORS OF SCUI POISONS!!! and that they (the doctors) are so mystified by the action of these subtle poisons on the human frame, that they even know not when they poison their patients! Another evil consequence of encouraging doctors is thus put before

If two or three doctors swear that A, B, or C poisoned D, they [who?] are liable to be indicted and convicted of wilful murder. However, from evil good will arise. This case must lead the people to think on this most momentous question, and to bring the real culprits (the doctors) to account; for it is impossible that the public can remain with such an incubus on their heads.

We do not profess to apprehend the entire meaning of this; but it is clear that the Hygeist holds the doctor responsible for half the disease, and rather more than half the vice, in the world. Who encourages drunkenness as much as the doctor? For, asks the Medical Reformer, "do not alcehol and the other poisons produce disease? and do not doctors live by disease?" The logic is unanswerable; but to clinch the argament, an "instance" is given of the mode in which doctors set to work:—

Let us take a case: — A, or B, is taken ill. The Doctor is sent for. He administers one of these subtle and deadly poisons, and, perhaps, in three or tour days the patient dies. Does it occur to him that he has kided him? Oh, dear, no; he is so wrapped in his science of chemistry that he cannot believe it, and quietly puts down the death to NATURE! whilst, all the while, his poison has done the work. As to friends, they, of course, believe whatever the Doctor says, and the patient is placed in the grave. So ends that case, which is repeated the next day, and so on.

case, which is repeated the next day, and so on.

Happily for us, the Hygeists not only throw physic to the dogs, but offer us a much more safe and potent remedy of their own invention. Mr. Morison's system—or rather the Hygeian system, for we do not hold Mr. Morison responsible for all that has been done in his name—is the only one, according to the Medical Reformer, "by which the whole areana of health and disease is at once made clear to the meanest capacity." The process of oure is very simple, as laid down in the manuals before us. If you are

ill, take the pills till you get well—or die. They may be depended upon to make you better—or worse. We have read through a very long list of cures effected by this simple agent, and we can honestly say that they are all truly surprising. One W. P. was in the sad predicament of having twenty-five wounds in his leg, "extending," as the report gracefully says, "from the ancle to the hip, after suffering upwards of two years." This is a nicture of the nor wretch: picture of the poor wretch:-

He was obliged to walk on crutches, as the leg was drawn up to the hip, so that the toe but scarcely touched the ground, and was also reduced to a

At last the doctors thought they would have recourse to amputation, but, bad as the limb was—such is the affection we bear to our members—W. P. could not make up his mind to part with it. By some happy chance he heard of Morisen's pills, and swallowed them by the score, night and day. Such perseverance, or—as Mr. Spurgeon would say, such "faith"—could not but be rewarded, and the crooked leg became straight and sound. This was wonderful; but things much more wonderful have been done. Ossification of the heart is, probably, a rather bad thing to have, but it is a mere trifle to the Hygeist. He calls it "gummification," and says:—

Do not we see a humour from the eye, in the course of the night, become quite hard like gum? The Vegetable Universal Medicine will certainly prevent any such thing; and, even if formed, will eradicate it by perseverance.

We are here left in some doubt whether the College undertakes to cure gummification of the eye or the heart, but one is probably as easy as the other. Like the penny medicines which hawkers sell at country fairs, the pills are "warranted" to cure anything and everything. Some of the patients underwent the most dismal tortures before taking the pills. One man—who signs his name—declares that he was nervous, lost his presence of mind and his memory, had a swimming of the head, a twitching of the eyes and legs; and what was worse, "I felt," says this poor "screw," "as if I had large stones in my stomach, with sharp points forcing outward." This unhappy object struggled with the sharp stones as long as he could, and then sent several pecks of the pills in search of them. When he wrote his letter he was still in a very ugly plight, and it is rather surprising that the College of Health printed this very significant admission:—

I have taken as many as eighty of the number one, and forty of the

I have taken as many as eighty of the number one, and forty of the number two. I have taken as many of the number one as I could afford, and as many of the number two as I could bear.

To compensate for this qualified testimony, the same writer subsequently states that he had cured with the pills "three bad legs that had been kept standing for three years." A rest was all they needed. Another man writes to say that his wife suffered for years from a "complication of disorders," was given up as a hopeless job by the doctors, and was, at last, easily brought round by the Universal Medicine. One "R. A." was cured of a seven years' asthma, and "the party's wife" was also cured of "tumour, liver-complaint, dropsy," and a few other slight disorders. A young gentleman, in whose hand mortification set in, was completely healed by this most blessed pill. A whole family was cured of "inflamed liver, epileptic fits, inflammation in the chest," and we cannot tell what beside. Consumption may be extirpated from the system, and the tendency to commit suicide dispelled, by the same simple means. In fact, every one may bring his load of infirmities and shoot it down before the College of Health, the licensed scavengers of the human race.

The poorer classes are the chief, though not the only, victims

licensed scavengers of the human race.

The poorer classes are the chief, though not the only, victims of the infamous impositions which are palmed off as infallible specifics. Quack pillmakers are, in truth, greater enemies to society than the garotter or the burglar; and their extraordinary success goes far to justify the old saying, that mankind may be roughly divided into two classes—the knaves and the fools. To many a reader, advertisements of quack medicines and marvellous cures seem too preposterous and absurd even to excite a smile, but it is very certain that hundreds daily swallow the abominations and are sent to a premature grave in consequence. It is not so much that the compounds are in themselves deleterious as that they induce an afflicted person to trifle with his disease—to take a medicine that to a premature grave in consequence. It is not so much that the compounds are in themselves deleterious as that they induce an afflicted person to trifle with his disease—to take a medicine that produces an effect exactly opposite to that which is required, and to go on without competent treatment and advice until all human skill is ineffectual to save him. So obvious is it that no one medicine can cure all kinds of disease, that it seems wonderful where the dupes can be found who help to build up colossal fortunes for the quacks of the day. An impudent man who is anxious to get on in the world cannot err in calculating too strongly upon the folly and the credulity of mankind. There was once a quack who professed to be able to cure wounds by putting into them the scrapings of a brass pot, and there are people who would believe him now. It is a good, paying speculation to go round the country as a converted collier or weaver, or as a reclaimed drunkard, or for a fluent man to set up as a popular preacher and Merry Andrew. But better than either it is to introduce a new universal medicine, and to advertise it freely. It will involve an outlay at first, but eventually the profits may be reckoned, not by hundreds, but by thousands of pounds. The desire to escape from suffering is strong in us all, and a sick man will grasp at any straw to keep him from sinking. When the disease is hopeless, and medical men abandon the patient, the quack takes him in hand and gives him an impetus towards the grave, while at the same time he rifles his pockets. The very essence of the system is to exhaust the physical powers to such a degree that the nostrums produce no effect unless they are taken in constantly increasing potions. It is thus ingeniously contrived that atrophy should progress in the body and the purse at an equal ratio. There is no help for all this, since the breed of fools will never become extinct, and foxes will not be turned from their tendency to prey upon geese. The poor and the ignorant who fall into the clutches of these pitiless harpies may be sympathized with, but it is impossible to commiserate those whose education ought to render them proof against the vulgar and shallow pretensions of illiterate impostors. Such persons need not be surprised, and ought not to be pitied, if, after placing themselves in the hands of quacks, they find that instead of the one evil spirit they desired to expel, they are possessed by seven others more cruel than the first.

SERVANTS' CHARACTERS.

IT speaks ill for the domestic morality on which we nationally pride ourselves, that while there is probably not a transaction of every day life in which strict accuracy is of greater importance than "giving characters," there is none in which it is more habitually disregarded, or in which its disregard is looked upon as more venial. The modern outcry on the subject of bad servants more venial. The modern outery on the subject of bad servants fairly raises the question whether what may be termed our domestic passport system is not as useless as its international prototype for the purpose of excluding mauvais sujets; in other words, whether the character test does not fail in its most essential condition—that of enabling us to distinguish between the genuine and the spurious in our domestic currency. It is not the least misfortune of household service that it claims exemption from misfortune of household service that it claims exemption from those checks which society imposes upon others who have to win their bread by the exercise of their craft, and which do, in fact supply the guarantee professed to be supplied in the characters given by masters to servants. The village tradesman stands or falls by public opinion; for the entire village makes itself the judge of his wares and workmanship. If the Browns are disposed to puff either unduly, it matters little when a standing committee of Joneses and Robinsons are ready to report on the real merits of the case, and to counteract the influence of the puffers. And moreover, if public opinion itself is insufficient to command fair play, the strong arm of the law is in many respects prompt to enforce it. The baker who gives light weight, the butcher who sells unwholesome meat, are open to the summons of the Inspector and the Local Board of Health. The cabman who is insolent, or overcharges his fare, has reason to dread the nearest police magisovercharges his fare, has reason to dread the nearest police magistrate and the forfeiture of his licence. If supervision of this kind is liable to occasional abuse, it has at least the wholesome effect of strengthening public confidence in the classes over which effect of strengthening public confidence in the classes over which it is exercised. But upon the servant, individually, neither public opinion nor the surveillance of the law exercises any such control. That vox populi which holds the First Lord of the Treasury in check has no power over his lordship's butler. True it is that servants as a class, pay dearly for this immunity. The public not unnaturally indemnifies itself for its lack of jurisdiction over the individual by a severe, and occasionally unjust, criticism of the entire class; and perhaps we need look no farther than this for the reason why the very word "menial," once importing only a claim to sympathy and protection, has sunk almost universally into a term of contempt.

term of contempt.

But, per contra, it is pretty clear, from the ordinary teno But, per contra, it is pretty clear, from the ordinary tenour of characters that masters are quite as unduly lenient in their mode of framing certificates as public sentiment is ungenerous to the whole servant caste. Yet the same persons who shrink from the proper exercise of what is in truth a judicial function will not hesitate to follow their neighbours in ceasing to employ a bad tradesman. The bad tradesman fails, the bad servant thrives, and society gains as much in the one case as it loses in the other. The hesitate to follow their neighbours in ceasing to employ a bad tradesman. The bad tradesman fails, the bad servant thrives, and society gains as much in the one case as it loses in the other. The inconsistency, however, if such it be, is but an apparent one. Responsibility, whether it affects reputation or life itself, tends to assume very fractional proportions when shared with the multitude. Were Blondin to break his neck in his perilous passage, each of the twenty thousand spectators who have paid their shilling to witness it would be morally responsible as accessories. Practically, the chance of such a catastrophe only gives an additional zest to what, in the modern manager's slung, is called a "sensation scene." But to be the solitary witness and instigator of such a performance would certainly demand in the most hardened sightseer a temperament scarcely less exceptional than that of Blondin himself. Most people can be callous in a crowd. Were it otherwise, we should all feel that the usual plea ad misericordiam — that the servant depends on his character for his bread —may as fairly be urged on behalf of the tailor and a hundred others, from whom little or no scruple is felt in withdrawing custom and recommendation when their workmanship proves bad or their wares turn out to be of indifferent quality. The real difference between the two cases is that of forming one of the firing party at a military execution, and stepping on the scaffold as a solitary headsman. Thus, one moiety of the disingenuousness displayed in characters is perhaps as fairly due to the moral cowardice arising from conscious isolation of opinion as the other moiety is due to motives of humanity; and this consideration is not without importance in estimating the strain which the character system may be fairly expected to bear, taking moral courage at its average strength. Probably the system works to some effect where gross dishonesty or misconduct is

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evinced by the servant, and where silence would almost amount to complicity. But it cannot be relied upon where he is simply untrained and incapable. The law on the subject is, at any rate, clear and satisfactory. No master can be legally compelled to give a servant a character, but if he knowingly gives a good character to a bad servant, he is civilly, if not criminally, responsible for the consequences. But, on the other hand, the servant who refers to his master for a character must take the risk of its being unfavourable, unless it can be proved to be falsely and maliciously so.

It is doubtless far easier to be silent than scrupulously accurate where the task of telling the truth is a disagreeable one; but in practice the case where silence is possible is of rare occurrence. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred the subject of a character is, to borrow a metaphor from the stables, screwy rather than absolutely unsound. A direct warranty is out of the question, but still something must be said, and the difficulty is what to say and how to say it. And this difficulty is one from which most of us are willing to escape on the somewhat shabby terms which expediency usually presents. The old doubt may be a cynical one whether, if lifting the finger would cure the toothache, on condition that the act were simultaneously to prove the death-warrant of a Mandarin in China, humanity would be proof against the temptation to gain instant relief by so simple a process. Still, it is perhaps just as well for Mandarins that the doubt admits of no other than a speculative solution. We fear that every day's experience shows that the average householder has a strong propensity to rid himself of his troubles, in the form of bad servants, at his neighbours' expense, and that scruples of conscience are rarely allowed to interfere with an off-hand remedy, the only drawback to which is serior in stroubles, in the form of bad servants, at his neighbours expense, and that scruples of conscience are rarely allowed to in-terfere with an off-hand remedy, the only drawback to which is that it is exhibited at the cost of an unknown public. His charity is seldom robust enough to induce him to retain in his service one who is clearly untrained and incapable; but the charity which is unable to endure all things is at least willing to hope very many, and, amongst others, to assume that John, with all his drawbacks, will do well enough for the place to which he demands a pass-

who is clearly untrained and incapable; but the charity which is mable to endure all things is at least willing to hope very many, and, amongst others, to assume that John, with all his drawbacks, will do well enough for the place to which he demands a passport.

The first practical conclusion to be drawn from these considerations is, that the inquirer as to character will do well to obtain a personal interview with his informant whenever such a course is possible. Written interrogatories always place the questioner at a heavy disadvantage, and never more so than in communications as to servants. Naturally enough, few are disposed to be as confidential in correspondence with an unknown stranger as when the ice of reserve is broken by a personal interview—even assuming that there is no motive for being uncommunicative. Where such a motive exists, a correspondent has you wholly at his mercy. If your questions are minute and specific, he may easily imply a right of silence on all points on which they may omit to touch; while a general interrogatory is apt to elicit an answer about as indefinite as the description of your person in a passport. Nobody is willing to harbour these incubi, and few care to stop their circulation. It is, in short, the old story in the Arobian Nights of the body by laying it at the door of the Jew—the Jew slips it down the chimney of his neighbour—and the neighbour transfers it with all speed to the shop of the Sultan's purveyor.

The second conclusion which suggests itself is, that society is only suffering the fitting penalty of its inconsistency in setting a high money value on domestic service, and at the same time manifesting a total disregard of the benefits which might be insured by special training. The successors of Swift have, it is true, been promoted to the dining-room since the day when Sir William Temple's chaplain took his seat by the side of his patron's butler. But tried by the standard of £ s. d., it is still an open question which of the two ministries ranks highest in

in any other line of life than that of service would be reduced to the alternative of starving or learning their business. Is it too much to hope that another generation may do for the servant that which the present has accomplished on behalf of the farmer? A century ago, the idea of any education for the agriculturist, other than such as he could pick up at the day school, would have been scouted as Utopian. Agriculture has now its scientific professors, and the farmer his college, and the landlords and crops of the present day alike testify that we have not suffered by the innovation. The nascitur non fit theory is carried dangerously far when it is applied to the servant, and Savariu's dictum that on nait rotisseur can only be taken as a confession that no amount of training will teach a Frenchman to roast. Plain cooks, like dentists, must have a beginning; and it is due to humanity that the first essays of either should be attended with as little suffering to mankind as possible. Surely (as it is difficult to combine cookery with chloroform) something might be done in the way of establishing a public training school in which the rudimentary efforts of the plain cook might be made without risk to her fellow-creatures. The simple recognition of the fact that cooking is chemistry, and that it must be learned on the terms of an exact science, would be a step in advance towards further reform, and ought of itself to bring about the establishment of a "School for Servants." At any rate, it is high time that the soundness of the whole class of domestic servants should be no longer wholly dependent upon the moral courage of the individual employer, and on a system which at best does little more than insure the gravitation of the whole class of domestic servants should be no longer wholly dependent upon the moral courage of the individual employer, and on a system which at best does little more than insure the gravitation of inferior domestics to the inferior class of employer, who is content to put up with bad service on the terms of low wages. Thus it is that the "middle level" of society has been deluged with bad and incompetent servants, and it rests with the educational engineer to stem the inundation by such barriers as educational discipline can alone present. This done, the character system may possibly prove useful as an outfall drainage, when relieved of the perilous flood which neglect of more effective precautions has thrown upon it.

A PARCHMENT TEST OF MORALS.

A PARCHMENT TEST OF MORALS.

THE spasmodic efforts made by the partisans of the Revised Code to justify their retention of the certificated teachers, resemble the attempts of the Northerners to get to Richmond. First, we had, in the middle of last session, the edifying spectacle of the great apostle of the law of demand and supply getting up to advocate the maintenance of a Government monopoly. The scanty majority by which Mr. Walter's motion was defeated was a check as ominous as the first Bull Run. Later, in the autumn, the official mouthpiece of the Committee of Council attempted in vain to fortify, by fresh arguments, the illogical and untenable position into which his superiors had drifted. Individual examination, the famous "arm of precision," was, by itself, imperfect, and recourse must still be had to that old Brown Bess, the trained teacher, whose services were pronounced by Mr. Lingen "an additional security of a very solid character" for the efficiency of a primary school. Read by the light of Mr. Lowe's earlier speeches, such words involve as remarkable a change in the base of operations—as masterly "a strategic movement"—as any from the banks of the Chickahominy to the James. Finally, a new combatant (shall we say the Pope or the Burnside of the controversy?) has lately entered the lists. The Rev. J. P. Norris figures, we believe, just now as the Abdiel of school inspectors. In that capacity, he has flown to the aid of his official chief, only to find in the columns of the Times a Fredericksburg.

We are not going to say a word in dispraise of the certificated teachers. Their extinction would be, in our opinion, an unmitigated evil. If matters stood as they did in 1861, we should quite agree with Mr. Norris that "to break down and undo the whole system would be the blindest act of legislation that was been already consummated, amidst the applause of those who, like Mr. Norris, are blind enough to believe the new Code a mere development of the old. The breaches in the system are already, thanks to M

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His argument strikes us as extremely singular. The possession of a certificate, he roundly asserts, is a guarantee of moral worth. Inspection may be all very well as a means of testing the intel-

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lectual attainments of a school, and, by implication, the teaching powers of the master. But at a certain point the test of inspection breaks down. It cannot penetrate below the surface of things. It cannot dive into the inmost depths of the human heart. It cannot lay bare to the practised eye, be it ever so practised, the whole moral nature of the ex-student of Battersea or St. Mark's. This being so, as Mr. Norris is forcel regretfully to allow, some other more potent test of moral worth in a teacher must be devised. This he is so sanguine as to believe he has found in the certificate examination. Not only has it already purged the Staffordshire schools of "bank-rupt characters," who would creep back if it were removed, but it is a process in which the candidate, as it were, sheds his moral skin. rupt characters," who would creep back if it were removed, but it is a process in which the candidate, as it were, sheds his moral skin. He goes in to his week's paper work a child of Adam, with an immense development of the old man, and he comes out an earnest Christian, a man whom Mr. Norris would at once entrust with the care of children. History and geography are, in Mr. Norris's view, an Ithuriel's spear, with which to detect vice and sin. "No mere adventurer," he proudly exclaims, "would face that certificate examination, occupying a whole week, and requiring a twelvemenths' preparation. A man must be in earnest to do that." Under that fearful ordeal hypocrisy must drop its mask, and moral evil disclose itself in all its native hideousness. We have heard, of late, a great many arguments in favour of examination, but this moral argument is the newest of all. No one doubts that it is a test of knowledge, whatever it may be of ability. But, before this moral argument is the newest of all. No one doubts that it is a test of knowledge, whatever it may be of ability. But, before Mr. Norris, no one has arisen to declare it a test of morals. No doubt there is "earnestness," of a rather feverish kind, in the youthful aspirant who submits himself to the tender mercies of the Youth'ld aspirant who submits himself to the tender mercles of the Civil Service Commissioners, armed with latent cribs, and with the dates of the chief events in English history neatly transcribed on his wristbands. He has carefully prepared for the examination; he is "no mere adventurer;" on the contrary, he will leave nothing that he can possibly help to chance. Is Mr. Norris prepared to contend that his morality is unexceptionable? We cannot help hat he can possibly help to chance. Is Mr. Norris prepared to contend that his morality is unexceptionable? We cannot help thinking how particularly grateful to the convict world would be at the present moment the appointment of that gentleman to the chaplaincy of one of our principal gaols. His views are exactly those upon which the much-abused functionaries who have the spiritual charge of our garotters have hitherto acted. There is the same charming simplicity, the same confident faith in the efficacy of his own nostrum. But Mr. Norris's feat is infinitely more executed in the control of the cont of his own nostrum. But Mr. Norris's feat is manney more astounding than any of which Millbank or Pentonville has been the astounding than any of which Millbank or Pentonville has been the scene. It takes some years—at least, some months—to turn cut a perfect specimen of ticket-of-leave morality. Mr. Norris, in the space of one short week, between four bare walls, and with nothing but a supply of stationery, undertakes to assure himself of the moral worth of all comers. This certainly beats anything we have ever read in the amals of prison clair-oyance.

But this is not all. Not only does Mr. Norris consider an examination in secular subjects a satisfactory test of a teacher's moral worth, but he evidently thinks that in the three or four hours spent in the invnection of a school he can gain sufficient insight.

spent in the inspection of a school he can gain sufficient insight into the master's character to pronounce dogmatically upon his moral fitness for the post. He tells us that it has happened to him to examine a school and find signs of clever teaching and the order unexceptionable:—

But the man (he goes on to say) has the look of a dram-drinker, and I notice a certain unmistakeable shrinking under his reproof, which tells a tale of blows when no one is present. I am persuaded myself that the man is morally unit for his post, and that the example of his temper and habits must be doing harm to the children.

Mr. Norris is not prepared, it seems, to go to the length of stopping the grants on such evidence of unitness in a teacher, but it is quite clear that he allows himself every latitude for committing an injustice in thought. If he permits his imagination to run riot, if he lets his judgment be thus overpowered by vague surmises, if he really judges of a man's heart by the colour of his nose, all we can say is that we wonder at his deserved popularity among the Staffordshire schools. It was, if we remember right, from Mr. Norris's Reports that Mr. Lowe culled, last spring, the choicest of those "Platonic ideas" by which he sneeringly asserted his subordinates were habitually misled. None of the inspectors has so much to say about the "moral tone" of the schools he visits. His recent letters throw some faint light on the phrase, and what, in the mouth of its originator, is its worth. What Mr. Norris means by "tone" may be inferred from the phenomena which indicate to him moral unfitness in a teacher. We may be sure that there is a scholarmoral unfitness in a teacher. We may be sure that there is a scholar-like pallor in the master's cheek, and that the most prominent feature in his physiognomy is innocent of any ruby or purple tinge. We may be sure that if his hand shakes, it is only from nervoussess at the august presence in which for one day in each year he stands. And, lastly, we may take it for granted that the parental instinct is scrupulously respected, that there is no sensitive shrinking under reproof (where are these tender nurslings of the human aspen to be found?), but as much bumptiousness on the part of the scholars as is compatible with respect for the Queen's

Inspector.

The truth is, that while man remains the complex and mysterious being he is, it is the purest Quixotism to attempt to read at a glance the moral problem he presents. There is a school of rash and conceited enthusiasts who fancy themselves able to turn human nature inside out as easily as they would an old glove. But no fair and sensible mind would venture for a moment on such a folly and presumption. It would be as absurd to pronounce upon a man's moral character from a three hours' interview as it would be to write an account of the social state of Japan from a three days' sail round its coast. Convenient, therefore, as it would be for the Government inspector if the teacher whose work he is sent to inspect were made of glass, he will, if he is wise, confine himself to judging of that work as he actually finds it. Of the morality of the teachers in nine cases out of ten he can know positively nothing—nothing, that is, that is not told him by those who are infinitely better qualified by their position to judge than himself. Except where evil forces itself on his notice, or the aid of his official prestige is specially invoked, he had much better leave the morality of a teacher to stand or fall by the judgment of his employers and neighbours—of those who see him, not on a set day in his Sunday best, but continually and unreservedly at all times and seasons, in his school and in his home. The Revised Code has just invested school managers with plenary authority over the institutions with which they are connected. Surely if there is anything with which they may be properly entrusted, it is the selection of a person morally fit to train and teach the children of the local poor. While the Government paid a share of the teacher's salary it had a right to take the precautions it deemed best fitted to secure his efficiency; but now that payments depend on results, it has lost the right of prescribing the means by which those results shall be produced. Be this as it may, under any Code, old or new, the responsibility for the moral influence of a teacher rests not with the State, but with the local managers. Let inspection go as far as it can, and a certificate certify what it can. As evidence of intellectual competency, it is entilled to great. a teacher rests not with the State, but with the local managers. Let inspection go as far as it can, and a certificate certify what it can. As evidence of intellectual competency, it is entitled to great weight. As evidence of ability, it is much less reliable. As evidence of good morality, it is not worth the skin it is printed on. To bolster up a test confessedly insufficient, by another altogether inoperative, has been reserved for the latest and lamest apologist for the Lowe's inconsistency.

inoperative, has been reserved for the latest and lamest apologist for Mr. Lowe's inconsistency.

Mr. Norris expresses his belief that small rural schools will benefit by the Revised Code; but it is rather singular, that the only advantages he specifies are, first, leave to dispense with pupil teachers—by common consent the most valuable form of aid a school can have—and secondly, permission to engage a master or mistress of an utterly inferior stamp, the least qualified of any for dealing with village scholars. He had better have confined himself to the glowing eulogium we are glad to see he passes on the system Mr. Lowe has overthrown. This allusion to the proposed teachers of "small rural schools" vittates his whole argument. Is he not aware that the teacher to whom he is the proposed teachers of "small rural schools" villates his whole argument. Is he not aware that the teacher to whom he is prepared to hand over the care of the cottager's child is to be a young apprentice who has served his time, utterly uncertificated, and therefore presumably vicious and immoral? And what can the security for a teacher's morals be worth, if it may be dispensed with merely because a school is small and remote?

REVIEWS.

CLARK'S COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR.

TEARLY half a century has passed since Bopp became the founder of a science which now occupies a prominent place in the intellectual pursuits of our age. In his essay On the System of Conjugation in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Persian, and German, published in 1817, he established once for all the intimate relationship of the Indo-European languages, by tracing the grammatical terminations of all of them back to one common type. William Von Humboldt was one of the first who perceived the importance of that naw mine of knowledge which Bopp had opened. He saw Von Humboldt was one of the first who perceived the importance of that new mine of knowledge which Bopp had opened. He saw even further than Bopp, who was chiefly occupied with minute inquiries, while Humboldt's genius soared higher, and anticipated many of the results which these researches into the history and origin of language were sure to produce. But while Humboldt was linking together the members of a vast family of speech—the Malay and Polynesian—which spreads its arms over more than half of the inhabited globe, and while his keen eye strove to pierce the clouds of a more distant past, and to discover beyond them the first gleams of the dawn of human thought and human language, Bopp continued his own researches, examining beyond them the first gleams of the dawn of human thought and human language, Bopp continued his own researches, examining every termination in Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit, measuring every syllable, weighing every letter, until he could explain the secret of every change which had made Sanskrit to differ from Greek, Greek from Latin, Latin from Gothic. At last, in 1833, Bopp published the first part of what he called A Comparative Grammar of Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, Latin, Lithunnian, Old-Slavonic, Gothic, and German, a work which was not finished till 1853, but which will remain for ever a monumentum are peremnius of German industry, accuracy, and genius. Humboldt did not live to enjoy the harvest to which he had been looking forward. He died in 1835, and his great work on the Kawi Language had to be published after his death, in 1836. But in the meantime new labourers had entered the field. In 1836 Grimm published the first part of his German Grammar, a work which, though more limited than Bopp's Comparative Grammar, was not less comprehensive in grasp and scope. Pott also had taken his place; and his Etymological Researches, published in 1833, showed how much might still be gathered even from the ore that had been examined by Bopp.

[•] The Student's Handbook of Comparative Grammar, applied to the Skrit, Zend, Greek, Latin, Gothic, Anglo-Saxon, and English Languages. Rev. Thomas Clark, M.A., lake Head Master of the Proprietary Sci Taunton. Longman & Co.: 1862.

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With every year new students joined the ranks. Burnouf, Lassen, Benfey, Curtius, and many others, each worked their own separate plot; and such have been the results of their labours, that at the present moment it is hardly possible for any one scholar to survey the whole field that has been cultivated, and is yielding, year after year, the richest harvest. Bopp's great work has lately passed through a second edition, which, as may be expected from the rapid growth of the science of which it treats, is in fact a new work. The new edition of Pott's Etymological Researches seems to have nothing in common with the first except its title. A rich market has been open now for ten years in Kuhn's Zeitschrift für Vergleichende Sprachforschung, a periodical which has become indispensable to all who do not wish to be left behind in a science which is advancing every day.

nothing in common with the first except its title. A rich market has been open now for ten years in Kuhn's Zeitschrift für Vergischende Sprachforschung, a periodical which has become indispensable to all who do not wish to be left behind in a science which is advancing every day.

But while this rapid progress has been going on — while new coincidences, new laws, new principles have been discovered by the scholars of Germany, France, and England—there has been a great dearth of books in which these results were gathered up and rendered accessible to the classical student or the general reader. Those who were qualified to write such books were themselves engaged in researches which absorbed their whole attention, and none but a consummate scholar could venture to sum up where so much was left to the discretion of the judge, and where the evidence, often varying and contradictory, of the most eminent witnesses had to be balanced. On the whole, the second edition of Bopp's Comparative Grammar was till lately the only book that could be safely placed in the hands of a student anxious to become acquainted with the method and the results of Comparative Philology. But the mere titlepage of this work is appalling. Not everybody has the heart to wade through Lithuanian, Old-Slavome, Armenian, and Zend, in order to arrive at an understanding of the principles of Comparative Grammar. Most scholars only wish to learn how to avail themselves of the fresh light which that new science has thrown on the languages in which they are most interested, whether it be Greek, or Latin, or Anglo-Saxon as the earliest type of the English language. If Sanskrit is a sine qua non, they may make up their minds to master the alphabet and grammar of that language of languages; but life is too short to attempt more. There are two quite distinct objects for which Comparative Philology may be studied. One is, to establish the relationship of all the members of a great family of speech, and to prove in minute detail how every form in the grammar their works that the most exact scholarship was not only compati-ble with, but indispensable for, a successful analysis of Greek and Latin by means of the tests supplied by the Science of Language. Even "Godofredus Hermannus" had to learn Sanskrit in his old Even "Godofredus Hermannus" had to learn Sanskrit in his old age, in order to refute the empirical views of Madvig on Latin grammar; and at the present moment, not only is Comparative Philology taught at every University in Germany and France, but the grammars of Greek and Latin, of French and German, used at the best public schools in those two countries, are based on the principles first established by Humboldt and Bopp.

The Student's Handbook of Comparative Philology, by the Rev. Thomas Clark, was intended to supply a want very generally felt by English scholars:—

by English scholars:—

It is in the acquisition and teaching of languages (the author writes) that Comparative Grammar will be found most extensively useful. It has been already applied to the Greek and Latin grammars; and it will not long be possible for any one to teach them satisfactorily who has not at least made insuelf familiar with its leading principles. An acquaintance with Comparative Grammar will be equally serviceable to the learner. Hitherto he has had to learn by rote what was never explained. He was told, for instance, that hades and habits are the singular and plural of the same word, without being able to see how the one was derived from the other. . . . Many a youth who, under the old system, was glad to give up his Latin in exchange for the physical sciences . . . will feel as much pleasure in the study of languages as in that of geology and chemistry. . . . In the following pages I have attempted little more than to put into a popular form what has been already established, and thus to meet the wants of those to whom the profunder and more voluminous works upon the subject are inaccessible. The

materials have been in a great measure derived from the masterly Verglei-chende Grammatik of Prof. Franz Bopp, &c.

materials have been in a great measure derived from the masterly Vergleichende Grammatik of Prof. Franz Bopp, &c.

Much as we were pleased with the promise of the preface, we were even more disappointed by the performance. Mr. Clark gives a meagre analysis of Bopp's Grammar, leaving out the most important portions which are to give life to the whole, and selecting his extracts with so uncertain a hand that his operation not seldom destroys the whole texture of Bopp's arguments. This work shows anew how much more difficult it is to write a short than a long book — to compose in a popular and yet exact style for schoolboys or general readers, than to put together a special treatise intended only for professional students. But the chief blame that attaches to Mr. Clark's Handbook is its total want of precision and accuracy. His statements are not correct, and some of his pages are disfigured by unpardonable blunders. It is perfectly true that mistakes have been pointed out even in the pages of a master like Bopp, and almost every new number of Kuhn's Zeitschrift destroys some erroneous views that have been current for a time, and sanctioned by the authority of the most careful scholars. But in a Handbook where statements must be made authoritatively — where an examination of all the reasons, pro and con, would be out of place—doubtful points should either be left out altogether, or be treated with the greatest reserve. We are not, however, blaming Mr. Clark for statements of this kind, but for downright misstatements arising from carelessness, and calculated to bring a science which has always prided itself on the exactness of its method, and the almost mathematical precision of its method, into utter contempt. We are sorry to have to use such strong terms when speaking of a man who has evidently taken great pains in acquiring a general acquaintance with a subject of considerable difficulty, and who, if he had chosen to devote his leisure to some more special points, might have rendered useful services to the stud

of the teacher.
P. 10. If Mr. Clark writes Sanskrit with a k, why does he write Pracrit with a c? Krita, as Mr. Clark knows, is the same element in both, namely, the past participle of kri, and ought to be written accordingly, either with a k or with a c.
P. 11. What does Mr. Clark mean by calling the Gypsy language a sister, while he represents Bengali, Mahratti, &c. as daughters of Sanskrit? Both sister and daughter are extremely vague terms as applied to languages; but if "sister" is to express a nearer relationship than "daughter," Mr. Clark will find that the Gypsy dialect has suffered far more corruption than Bengali and Mahratti. Mahratti.

Mahratti.

P. 14. Who told Mr. Clark that the Parsees of Bombay speak Parsee? They speak Guzerathi, or Marathi, or Hindustáni, or possibly Persian; but Parsee is the name of the ancient Persian previous to Firdusi, of which Spiegel has published a small grammar, and is no longer spoken by anybody.

P. 49. Mr. Clark very properly compares Sanskrit gharma, heat, with Greek θέρμη, and with the English warm: but what can he mean by placing the Latin uro side by side with these words? It is true he places uro within brackets, but even then it has no excuse. Uro (ussi) corresponds to Sanskrit ush, to Greek αΐω; while θέρμη and gharma are represented in Latin by formus.

P. 53. Mr. Clark says that final as, followed by a word beginning with a vocal letter, becomes o, the fact being that it does so only before one vowel, the short a, and before sonant consonants. Ho proceeds to state that in other languages s is frequently changed into r, the fact being that it is mere frequently and regularly changed into r in Sanskrit than in any other languages.

P. 54. The Sanskrit sh is said to correspond to the labial consonants. It is, however, never labial in Sanskrit, but is simply the lingual sibilant, corresponding to the other lingual letters peculiar to Sanskrit. The tabular view of the Sanskrit alphabet, as given on the same page, is wrong from beginning to end.

peculiar to Sanskrit. The tabular view of the Sanskrit alphabet, as given on the same page, is wrong from beginning to end.
P. 58. Mr. Clark states that in Zend, y, r, w, m, n, and the sibilants, cause a mute before them to become an aspirate. As an instance he mentions the Sanskrit ugra, which in Zend is ughra. But is g a mute? In the same paragraph it ought to be mèrèthyu; and tank, which by Bopp is mentioned doubtfully as a root from which possibly takma might have been derived, ought not to have been placed in the text as the equivalent of Zend takhma, quick.
P. 61. Prôd in prod-co is not the same preposition as the Greek προτί, πρός, the Sanskrit prati: and therefore it does not exemplify the change of a Greek τ into a Latin d. Prod and pro correspond to Greek πρό, Sanskrit pra. Bopp takes prâ as an Instrumental, præ (prai) as a Locative, prôd (pro) as an Allative, but he never identities prôd with prati.

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P. 76. Mr. Clark writes: "These roots have no meaning, and, as far as we know, were never used in ordinary speech." If he means that a root, qua root, is never used in ordinary speech, he is right, because a root as such is merely a scientific abstraction. But roots without any outward alteration do occur in ordinary speech: as, for instance, vis, a man; mas, a month; bhd, light; dhi, prayer, &c.

P. 79. What does Mr. Clark mean by translating ayam by this, the nearer; idam by that, the remoter? Idam is simply the neuter of ayam, as id is the neuter of is.

P. 81. Grabhāmi, I grab, is a Sanskrit word of Mr. Clark's own invention. According to Professor Wilson the verb is grihnāmi or gribhnāmi.

grihnâmi or gribhnâmi. grihnâmi or gribhnâmi.
P. 86. There is no reason whatever to suppose that in the verbs of the eighth class, like tan-o-mi, τάν-ν-μαι, &c. an n was lost after the final n of the root; nor is there any excuse for referring δλλυμι, δλ-νυμι, to the eighth, rather than to the fifth, class.
P. 90. How does Mr. Clark account for the transition of ηδ-ό-ς into ηδ-εί-α, as he writes it? Can v ever become ει? The feminine ηδεία stands for ηδεια, being derived from a base ηδεις, not from ηδει, which supplies the masculine.
P. 100. When Mr. Clark says he used the Vedic kad, quod, instead of the usual Sanskrit chit, he probably means the neuter of the interrogative pronoun, which is, however, kim, not chit.

P. 103. The instrumental case in Sanskrit is not asvend, but

P. 103. The instrumental case in Sanskrit is not asvenā, but asvenā, the final a being short.

P. 107. We are told, "In Greek ἡμεῖς or ἄμμες for ἀσμες, and ὑμεῖς or ὕμμες for ὑσμες, exhibit the same particle (sma) almost as complete as in Sanskrit; whilst in the Latin forms, nos, vos, it is much abbreviated." Does Mr. Clark derive nos from Sanskrit asme, vos from Sanskrit yushme? Is he not aware that in Sanskrit itself nas and vas exist as quite distinct from asme and yushme, and that these are identical with Latin nos and vos?

P. 115. Mr. Clark tries to prove that the Latin genitive in δ.

that these are identical with Latin nos and vos?

P. 115. Mr. Clark tries to prove that the Latin genitive in i is not, as Bopp supposes, an original locative, but a corruption of asya. This may be true or not. The reason, however, which he assigns is unfortunate. He says, "the meaning of the two cases lies very far apart." How is it then that in the dual the genitive and locative in Sanskrit have always the same termination? But while Mr. Clark tries to eliminate this locative in Latin, which Bopp had discovered, he has himself discovered another locative in Latin. He maintains that in the phrase ante diem graytum Nonas Junuarias, diem unscovered, he has himself discovered another locative in Latin. He maintains that in the phrase ante diem quartum Nonas Jamuarias, diem quartum are locatives corresponding to Sanskrit locatives in âm. Now this termination âm occurs only after feminines, and as dies quartus is masculine, it would be impossible to admit here a feminine termination.

P. 130. Mr. Clark idea of the control of the

feminine termination.

P. 139. Mr. Clark identifies the Sanskrit ekatara and the Greek ἐκάτερος. It is true he has in this case the authority of Bopp, but he ought to have known that the strongest objections have been raised against this identification. Ekatara in Sanskrit is very like the Greek ἐκάτερος in appearance, but for that very reason we ought to be suspicious of their real and etymological identity. The guna vowel e in Sanskrit can never be represented in Greek by ε, nor does it often happen that Greek has an aspirate when Sanskrit has an initial vowel. Lastly, ekatara in Sanskrit means one of two, but ἐκάτερος does not mean one of two, but, as Mr. Clark will find on consulting any Greek dictionary, each of two.

P. 147. To say that there are several examples of a d being represented by an l is inaccurate, because it conveys the impression that such a change is generally admitted, whereas, in the two or three words in which this change has been supposed to have taken place, it has been vigorously contested. Besides, it should be borne in mind that, because d and l are interchanged in some languages, it does by no means follow that a d in Sanskrit can be represented by an l in German. This is a mistake very often committed, though it has been pointed out over and over again that phonetic changes, perfectly correct as between Greek and Latin, are by no means admissible as between Greek and German. &c.

means admissible as between Greek and German, &c.
P. 157. To say that the accusative, instrumental, ablative, and

means admissible as between Greek and German, &c.

P. 157. To say that the accusative, instrumental, ablative, and locative of the pronoun of the first person coincide with the deplension of nouns, is simply wrong. Ma as a noun would form mam, mena, mát, me, whereas the pronoun is mâm, mayad, mat, me.

P. 181. Parasmaipada, the Sanskrit name for the active, is explained by Mr. Clark as we have never seen it explained before. Wilson says, "The Parasmaipada is that reflected word or verb (pada) the action of which is addressed to another than the agent (parasmai)." Pada means a word, parasmai is the dative of para, another. Mr. Clark says, "padam, from the word pad, fall, fall upon." But, in ordinary Sanskrit, pad does not mean to fall, but to go; pat is to fall. Pada is one of the commonest expressions for word, particularly for an inflected word.

P. 182. One of the most interesting rules in Sanskrit grammar is that which determines the weight of the terminations of verbs, and their influence on the radical vowels, which, before the so-called

is that which determines the weight of the terminations of verbs, and their influence on the radical vowels, which, before the so-called weak terminations, are strengthened by guna, or the insertion of an a. This rule explains, for instance, the coincidence between emi, I go, in Sanskrit, from the root i, and the Greek im; and between imas, we go, and the Greek im. It explains the transition of I bite into Ibit, of I fall into I fell, &c. According to this rule Mr. Clark forms quite correctly dveshti, he hates, from dvish, to hate; but he immediately afterwards violates the same rule twice, by giving dveshte instead of dvishte, dveshyate instead of dvishyate.

P. 164. Mr. Clark has not always understood Bopp's German—at least it would seem impossible to account in any other way for

some of his mistakes. Thus he says, "The Sanskrit has swa and some of his mistakes. Thus he says, "The Sanskrit has swa and swayam in some compounds, e.g. swa-bhu, swayam-bhu, to be self-originated; swayam-prabha, to be self-glorified; swayam-brabha, to be self-glorified; swatas is also used in the sense of 'self." Now it is quite certain that not one of these words has in Sanskrit the meaning which is here ascribed to them. Swayam-bhû (the final u is long) is one of the commonest names given to Brahma, and means self-existing, or, as Bopp translates it quite rightly, dwach sich selbst seiend. Did Mr. Clark take seiend in German for sein, and make an infinitive out of a participle? Svayam-prabha again is rightly translated by Bopp, durch sich selbst Glanz habend. Mr. Clark must have taken habend for haben. Svatas in Sanskrit is an obsolete ablative, corresponding to Greek i30v. It never means self, but, as Bopp rightly translates it, aus sich, durch sich selbst. Why, then, does Mr. Clark render it by self?

translates it, aus sich, durch sich selbst. Why, then, does Mr. Clark render it by self?

P. 165. In writing his analysis of Bopp, Mr. Clark has very properly thought it necessary to consult the second edition of the Comparative Grammer. The first edition, the one which was translated into English, belongs to the past, and it is to be hoped that we may soon have an English translation of the second. Now, when Professor Bopp leaves out statements in his second edition which are to be found in the first, there is always some very good reason, and though the author does not always give the reason why he surrendered some of his earlier opinions, Mr. Clark might have guessed that Bopp himself considers them untenable. very good reason, and though the author does not always give the reason why he surrendered some of his earlier opinions, Mr. Clark might have guessed that Bopp himself considers them untenable. Thus in his first edition Bopp thought he could trace the Latin spoute back to the pronoun sea, self. He took it for sea-vent, in the sense of Selbstheit, ipseidas. The English translation, even in the new edition which was republished this year, reads: "From the Latin, besides sui, suns, perhaps also spontis, sponte, from spont, are to be adduced here, since, according to all probability, the meaning 'self,' or 'the self, selfness,' is the primitive; sp, however, may be regarded as the modification of se, as spiro, in my opinion, is connected with s'vas, to breathe." Not a word of this is to be found in the second edition; yet Mr. Clark writes:—"In Latin ipse is explained as being by inversion for i-spe, and sp for Sanskrit se, as in sponte." It may be one of the cases where Mr. Clark thinks it right to differ from Bopp; but, as he says in his preface, "I have never differed from him without hesitation," he might surely have given his reasons why he differed from Bopp, when, as in this case, Bopp differs from himself. Whatever the etymology of sponte may be, it is quite clear that it cannot be derived from seavant. Seavant would be an adjective, meaning "possessed of self," "possessed of property;" whereas sponte and spontis presuppose a nominative spons, i. e. an abstract feminine noun, formed like mens, mentis. Until a better explanation can be found, that given in Mr. White's excellent Latin Dictionary will suffice. Here spondere is traced back to σπείνδω, "to make a solemn libation;" hence sponders, "to promise solemnly." From this root spons, sponts, would be regularly derived, meaning a pledge: and sponte med, tud, sud, "of my, thy, his accord."

We must here finish our Spicilegium. It does not extend over half of Mr. Clark's work, and it only comprises unquestionable

"of my, thy, his accord."

We must here finish our Spicilegium. It does not extend over half of Mr. Clark's work, and it only comprises unquestionable errors. We have looked in vain for any portion of the work which we could point out as deserving of praise. Mr. Clark has, no doubt, taken pains in mastering a difficult subject; he has read Bopp's Grammar more or less carefully, and he has tried to render its study more easy to others: but he has not brought to his task that precision which in scholarship is more requisite than anywhere else, and he has thus destroyed that very element in Comparative Philology which alone could recommend it as a wholesome discipline both at our schools and Universities.

MR. RUSSELL'S DIARY.

IT is greatly to the credit of Mr. Russell's literary powers that his diary should be so interesting and readable as it is. Ordinarily, nothing is more stupid, in the midst of a series of great events like those which mark the current history of America, than Ordinarily, nothing is more stupid, in the midst of a series of great events like those which mark the current history of America, than a recurrence to the earlier scenes, and a narration of what was done at a time so near as to be overshadowed by the greater interest of the present, and yet so far off that its incidents are now of little importance. Most diaries written in America a year and a half ago would be insufferable. Mr. Russell's diary is entertaining, and instructive, and fresh, simply because he has the art of knowing what to say and how to say it. He observes, he reflects, and he can tell a pleasant story in a pleasant way; and therefore, although there is not much in his book which is new—although South and North appear to us after we have read these pages very much as they did before, and though little happened to him which might not have befallen any intelligent traveller who had good introductions and knew the art of travelling—we are kept throughout the length of two volumes at a high pitch of content and amusement. It is impossible, in reading this work, not to compare it with that which Mr. Trollope has so lately published; and Mr. Russell may have some satisfaction in thinking that the comparison is greatly to his advantage, although Mr. Trollope is a man of very good sense, and has a pen that deservedly wins him the admiring attention of thousands of readers. Mr. Russell tells us more with half the effort; and his reflections are equally apposite and much effort; and his reflections are equally apposite and much

It would be useless going over ground so familiar as most of that which Mr. Russell describes, or telling the incidents of a tour which

My Diary North and South. By William Howard Russell. London: Bradbury & Evans. 1863.

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was sketched only a few months ago in the correspondence of the Times. But there are some things which Mr. Russell has peculiar to himself, and which will bear dwelling on a little in detail. In the first place, he has the art of giving descriptive photographs of the people he meets; and we think that we may venture to say, it is an art on which he somewhat prides himself. Great historians have lately brought this art into fashion; and it is generally assumed that the ordinary reader can build himself a likeness of an eminent man out of a catalogue of his features, accompanied by happy and telling epithets. If it be true that this power exists, the fact is certainly of great importance to the writer of past or current history; but it is one which it is very hard to be sure of. We cannot tell how much it impresses people to hear that Mr. Jefferson Davis "has a full forehead, square and high"—that his cheeks are "too hollow to be handsome"—or that his manner is "reserved and drastic." But we cannot help fancying that the mental power which, out of these fragments of personal description, can piece together the image of the man, is still rarer and more wonderful than the faculty which enables Mr. Russell to touch off these photographs. We must also say that this photographing is rather like the playing of boys with animals. It is capital fun for the boys, but poor work for the frog. It is clever in Mr. Russell, and amusing to his readers; but the Americans described will surely peruse the description with mingled feelings. Perhaps those who have courted publicity, and won their way to very prominent station, may accept their literary photographs as one of the necessary and appropriate accompaniments of their lot. Mr. Walker, the Confederate Secretary of War, may possibly not much mind learning that he is "tall, lean, straight-haired, angular, with fiery, impulsive eyes and manner, a ruminator of tobacco, and a profuse spitter;" normay so well known a politician as Mr. Howell Cobb resent the information that heis " man." But lesser people acquire in this way a notoriety which we in England should think scarcely desirable, and which it hardly seems to us consistent with good taste to inflict on strangers to whom a traveller is introduced. There was a certain hardly seems to us consistent with good taste to inflict on strangers to whom a traveller is introduced. There was a certain Colonel Wigfall who did his best to welcome and entertain Mr. Russell in the Southern States, and who, it seems to us, gets rather a short measure of good treatment from his photographing guest. Of this gentleman Mr. Russell tells us that he had "a square jaw, a thick argumentative nose, a new growth of scrubby beard and moustache, and eyes of wonderful depth and light, such as I never saw before but in the head of a wild beast." Now we cannot think that it would conduce to the cordiality and courtesy of the hospitality of any country, if it were considered open to the guest to study the host in this way, and to print his opinion, in the language spoken in the country he visited, that his host's nose is argumentative, and his eyes like a wild beast's. A Mr. George N. Sanders fares even worse. All that Mr. Russell had apparently to do with him was, that he drove out with some members of this gentleman's family. This drive offers an opportunity, which Mr. Russell seizes, of recording his opinion, that this Mr. Sanders is a "porcus de grege Epicuri, but a learned pig withal." It must be rather dangerous for a father of a family to offer Mr. Russell a seat in his carriage. In a few months his wife and daughters will receive Mr. Russell's opinion in print, that papa is a pig.

A long habit of mixing freely with all sorts of people a prec-

withal." It must be rather dangerous for a father of a family to offer Mr. Russell a seat in his carriage. In a few months his wife and daughters will receive Mr. Russell's opinion in print, that papa is a pig.

A long habit of mixing freely with all sorts of people, a practised quickness in catching at little traits and sayings and stories that mark strangers, and an easy method of introducing anecdotes, enable Mr. Russell to sprinkle through his volumes many excellent illustrations of the ways and works of Americans, and especially of Northerners. The strange turn that Americans have for contradicting Europeans on points of common European experience—a turn so happily ridiculed in Martin Chuzzlevit, when the American general gravely assures Martin that the word "start" is never used in English—forced itself on more than one occasion on Mr. Russell's notice. He was told that a bird about the size of a thrush with a yellow breast and a harsh cry was "the skylark," and on his complaining of the sharp noise it made, a young lady exclaimed, "Oh my! And you not to know that your Shelley loved it above all other things!" In like manner a colonel drew his attention to the use of the telegraph in the camp as a splendid American invention. Mr. Russell replied that Lord Clyde had always used a telegraph wire in the same way in India. To which the Colonel rejoined, that he believed Mr. Russell would say next that "your General Clyde and our Benjamin Franklin discovered lightning simultaneously." The curious familiarity of Americans, even in speaking of things and persons nearest to them, could scarcely have been brought home more oddly to a traveller than it was by an American high in office who invited Mr. Russell to his house, and told him that there "You shall see my wife, sir. She is a very pretty and agreeable young lady, and will prove nice sciety for you." The laxity of discipline and levity of mind of the Irish Federal troops have often been noticed; but it could searcely go further than in the remark one of them

Oh, your soul! oh, my soul! I'm going to the churchyard to lay this body

down.

Oh, my soul! oh, your soul! we're going to the churchyard to lay this nigger down—

nigger down—
which is neither sentimental nor edifying. Mr. Russell seems
also to have been much struck with the wildness and barbarism of
the lower classes of Southern freemen. No tyranny can be more
complete than the tyranny of opinion in Southern States, where
anything like tampering with the slaves is feared. Mr. Russell
took part in a conversation in which the arrival of a Western
States man was discussed who had come to buy chickens of the
negroes in some plantations near New Orleans. "Lucky for
him," said one speaker, "that he was not taken in the afternoon."
"Why so?" "Because, if the citizens had been drunk, they would
have hung him on the spot." A less dreadful breach of ordinary
law, but a more amusing one, came under Mr. Russell's observation

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at a place called Donaldsonville, on the Mississippi. A large flat was moored along the wharf, and its contents formed the topic of discussion between a policeman on duty and some citizens lounging on the shore. One of these gentlemen was enabled to state that this flat not only contained pork, corn, and so forth, but also one hundred and twenty gallons of whisky. The intelligence was too much for the policeman. He had, indeed, too keen a sense of his official position to state his views openly, but he could remind hearers that the freedom of a private position was open to them. "It is a west country boat," he exclaimed, "why don't the citizens seize it?"

SAISSET ON MODERN PANTHEISM.

THIS book relates the voyage of a mind over all the seas of modern philosophical theology, and its ultimate arrival at a haven of its own. The author is a Frenchman, and his work reveals the usual excellences and defects of a French style. That is to say, it is clear in expression, logical in argument, and acute in detecting fallacies or tracing out resemblances. But, on the other hand, it sometimes wearies an English reader with the egotism of its author, with the shallowness and generality of its views, and the substitution of rhetoric for plain sense. As a handbook, however, to the theological side of modern speculation, it is a most valuable addition to philosophical literature. Nor has the translator, Mr. Alexander, done his part badly, on the whole. Without the French before us, we cannot say how far he has rendered the strength and beauty of the original. Yet his translation is clear and, at the same time, idiomatic; it is English in its language—French in the transparency of its expression. The least satisfactory portion of his work is the original matter which he has added, in the shape of notes, and an essay to M. Saisset's text. He has so deep a dread of the least approach to heterodoxy, and is so severe against any who would disparage the paramount importance of theological arguments, that we naturally ask ourselves what title to learning, accuracy, or taste the translator can claim for himself. But the naturally and your part year satisfactory. On two occasions he has severe against any who would disparage the paramount importance of theological arguments, that we naturally ask ourselves what title to learning, accuracy, or taste the translator can claim for himself. But the answer is not very satisfactory. On two occasions he has misunderstood Aristotle. He translates \$\eta \gamma_{\text{of}} \paramount \text{importance} \text{eightering} is the naswer is not very satisfactory. On two occasions he has misunderstood Aristotle. He translates \$\eta \gamma_{\text{of}} \text{of} \text{of}

He made a tabula rasa of philosophy, and left nothing standing but the certainty of his own thinking self, whereupon he built up the theory of God and of the Universe. For he argued that the imperfection of his own soul forced him to believe in the existence the theory of God and of the Universe. For he argued that the imperfection of his own soul forced him to believe in the existence of a perfect Being. To invest this Being with all that he observed of good and noble in his own nature, was to make him God; and God, thus gained, he connected with the universe, as constantly creating and sustaining an infinite world by the ceaseless action of his arbitrary will. At this point Descartes leaves theology, and begins to explain the world by geometry. We now hear of nothing but res cogitans and res extensa—two perfectly distinct substances, which we recognise as generalizations from the double nature of man's self. From Descartes sprangtwosystems, each representing the development of one side of his philosophy. Malebranche took up his theological, Spinoza his geometrical speculation. Malebranche fixed his whole soul on the notion of God, and fell back into a mysticism that merged humanity in the splendour of the Deity. God, he said, is all in all to Himself; and when asked why He created the universe, he replied, "to extend His glory." But God works by order, and order requires a finite world, and a finite world cannot glorify an infinite Creator. Therefore, says Malebranche, it was necessary to divinize the world; and this God effected by the Incarnation. Thus he put an end to his philosophy by an appeal to the most mystical of religious mysteries; and, as

* Essay on Religious Philosophy. By M. Emile Saisset, Professor of the History of Philosophy in the Faculty of Letters of Paris. Translated. 2 vols. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 38 George Street. London. Hamilton, Adams, & Co. Dublin: John Robertson & Co. 1863.

Saisset shows, sank back into Pantheism by making of the world the mere theatre of God's glory. Spinoza took a very different line. He started with the bare notion of Being, and developed a Pantheism in which God is infinite Substance possessed of infinite attributes, among which are known to us only the Cartesian thought and extension, manifested in an infinite variety of modes. He is extended, yet incorporeal; he thinks, but has no understanding. And man is but the concurrence of two of his modes—a mode of thought corresponding to a mode of extension. It is obvious that this brought all things to a standstill; and when Novalis called Spinoza "God-intoxicated," he forgot that God—in Spinoza—is only another name for Substance. We cannot stop to admire the geometrical precision and crushing logic of this perfect system; yet it is curious to notice the historical development of some of Spinoza's views. From Plato's discussion of the line in the Republic he draws his four degrees of knowledge in the passage to certainty, and this again he transmits to the German School; so that 'Schelling's intellectual intuition is connected with Plato's contemplation of the Idea by Spinoza's Science of Substance.

From Spinoza we turn to Newton. Descartes had taken the à priori road, and deduced the world from thought. Newton From Spinoza we turn to Newton. Descartes had taken the à priori road, and deduced the world from thought. Newton examined the world, and pronounced that God was its creator. Descartes repudiated final causes, and built on hypothesis. Newton was Baconian in his method and teleological in his reasoning. He systematized the common belief, and said, God is extended infinitely in space, and flows on infinitely in time. At a moment he started from repose and flung upon immensity a few seeds of matter, which he gathered into worlds, and which we call the Universe. The impossibility of adjusting this theory with the metaphysical so-called attributes of God is evident. Its truth and beauty is the resignation of belief in an unintelligible God manifested through Creation. Leibnitz was bolder, and thought he could remove the veil from Isis. He criticized the purely mechanical system of Descartes, and pronounced that every substance is a force. God is the source of all the monad forces of the world, which proceed from him in ceaseless fulgurations. To explain the apparent interaction of the monads, he devised the system of preestablished harmony; so that his axiom — Dum Deus calculat fit mundus — means that the Universe is an automaton, consisting of separate forces so arranged by God, that in their eternal progress from Himself they produce the various effects we see around us. That such a theory gives no answer to the questions of evil, immortality, and freedom, may be easily understood. Its weak point consists in the difficulty of understading heave one fews each unon another. This has been answer to the questions of evil, immertancy, and receions may be easily understood. Its weak point consists in the difficulty of understanding how one force acts upon another. This has been revealed by the theory of the Correlation of Forces, which would transform the system of Leibnitz into one of rigorous material

Pantheism. Pantheism.

We have heard what Metaphysics and Mathematics can say about Theology. We now come to the criticism of Kant. Like Descartes, after making a clean sweep of metaphysics, he found one resting-place in the human soul. There he discovered the notion of duty, from which he deduced that of liberty, and then, upon the slender basis of human morality, built up God. For he said, what is the end of man? Virtue and Happiness. But these he cannot find in perfection here. Therefore there must be a God. This is only a form of the Cartesian argument; and, like Descartes. Kant proceeds to abstract humanity in order to define a God. This is only a form of the Cartesian argument; and, like Descartes, Kant proceeds to abstract humanity in order to define his attributes. The effect of Kant's criticism was to drive the mind in upon itself. Accordingly, Fichte takes up the axiom that Myself = Myself, and forms a subjective Pantheism where I am all —centre and circumference. Schelling identifies the ego with the non ego; and Pantheism with him becomes the science of an "absolute subject-object," which we contemplate by a mystical intuition, and which manifests itself by a process from unconscious to conscious existences throughout the universe. Here one might "absolute subject-object," which we contemplate by a mystical intuition, and which manifests itself by a process from unconscious to conscious existences throughout the universe. Here one might have thought the matter would end. But no. Hegel determines to make this mysticism scientific. Instead of the absolute and its intuition, we now hear of the idea and its logic. Adopting the unity of thought and matter, he proceeds to show, that this one substance exists under the law of a triple development, which implies the identity of contradictions. We move in a region of logical abstractions, all clustered round one enormous hypothesis of an eternal idea, which is itself the negation of our first laws of thought. Truly we may sigh if this is to be the end of all human speculation. After centuries of effort and discovery, we are brought back to the old questions that puzzled the Greek mind before Aristotle—to the identity of contradictions of Heraclitus; to the Eleatic fusion of thought with its object; to Plato's Dialectic. Nor does it comfort us to be told that this result is gained by no hasty guess, but by the mature development of ages. We sympathize with M. Saisset in the dilemma which he proposes to the Pantheist, of either annihilating the personality of God and making of the world a meaningless machine, or swallowing up humanity in the Godhead, and leaving unanswered the great questions of Freewill and Evil. There is no escape for him—he must choose between Atheism or Mysticism.

But how does M. Saisset correct this difficulty? He is as anxious to avoid Scepticism as to escape from Pantheism. Therefore, though profoundly convinced of the necessity of limiting human speculation, he does not sink back into the mystical pyrrhonism of Pascal; nor does he take his stand upon the miracles like Mansel, or negative theology with Comte. But he attempts to say to Reason—thus far shalt chou go, and no farther. We know that God exists by a direct instinct—we see his power

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and goodness in his works—we recognise pain only as the law of progress. And more than this, M. Saisset says, we cannot and we need not know. Why God exists, why He created the world, what the relation of the world to Him may be, are all questions beyond our thought. It is somewhat unsatisfactory to reach this indefinite conclusion at the end of so much solid criticism, and then to glide off insensibly into rhetoric on the beauty and fitness of things. But this is the fate of all philosophical theology. It is strong in destructive arguments, vague and feeble in construction. And this may be illustrated, we think, from the few points on which M. Saisset has ventured to dogmatize. For instance, he desires to prove that the world is eternal, and yet to avoid the Pantheistical conclusion of identifying it with God. Accordingly, he classifies different degrees of eternity. Eternity, he says, is a fixed idea in our minds, and so is duration; but time is only generalized duration. The world, then, is infinite in duration, but not strictly eternal; it does not enjoy an everlasting union of past, present, and future in one time, like its Creator. Here we think M. Saisset makes two mistakes. First, he argues from the nature of the divine Being, whom he assumes to be eternal; though elsewhere he expressly states we cannot know his essence, and nay only argue of him from his manifestations. Secondly, he adheres to the old Platonic theory that eternity is the truth of which time is a copy. Really, time is the abstract notion which we form from our experience of duration, and eternity the negative of this abstract idea, just as infinity is the negative of the limits which we perceive in sensible objects.

It seems, then, that while M. Saisset has proved by his criticism teat the full development of all theological metaphysics tends to Pantheism, by his example he shows the imposition of any check upon such logic to be unsatisfactory. We naturally ask ourselves, What, at root, is the nature of this Pantheism to which all spec

idea which it cannot entertain. If we take the second line, we instantly object that the consciousness of our own personality refutes it, and ask why God cares thus to manifest Himself in us—why He permits evil in Himself, and the like. The difficulty of the subject lies in logically determining the relation of man to God; and in the alternative indicated by us may be traced the tendencies of all metaphysics, which start either with a notion of the conscious self, or with the secondary abstraction of Being. For, starting with the idea of personality, man invests the power outside him—the cause which he instinctively supposes—with all the attributes of his own being. This, in a rude age, results in Mythology and Polytheism. In a more refined form it leads to the system of Plato, whose Demiurgus was good and wise, who made the world because he wished to propagate his goodness, and who exists eternally as a copy for us to innitate. This is all well, unless we ask, What prompted God to create, if He is all sufficient to himself? and why did He allow himself to be thwarted by evil? Or, if He is infinite, how could He make substances external to himself? Omitting these questions—or, in other words, resigning ontology—we have the wise religion of Newton, of whose system we may take as symbol the everlasting "I am." But unless supported by belief in Rovelation, it runs the risk of ending either in Pyrrhonism or in Pantheism. We naturally ask, am I right in projecting, on the non ego, an image of myself? May not God be a mere Brocken spectre, and I be the prototype instead of Him? This is, in effect, the doubt which Xenophanes raised against the old anthropomorphism of Greece, when he said that if horses had a theology they would fancy their god a quadruped. On the other hand, man may be lost in the mere unity of the divine effulgence. This was the case in the mysticism of Pletinus, and of Malebranche, who made of man a mere puppet in the hands of God. Or again, such systems, if they attempt to define God's nature by at

own laws of thought.

But suppose we start with the notion of mere existence. Then, by the law of unity, we pronounce with the Eleatics that everything is One—thought and its object are the same, and the world comes to a dead lock, of which the symbol is the barren word fort. This was the case with Spinoza, who merged the primary notions of thought and matter into that of substance, and concealed the Eleatic meagreness of the result by his elaborate system of deductions. The same result was attained by Hegel. All nature becomes now mathematical or logical. A dismal silence and inertia reigns throughout. We have truly escaped the suspicion that God may be a spectre on the mists of the non ego; but we have done so only by sacrificing His being and our own—by imagining a useless machinery which evolves itself for ever and ever by fixed laws, without reason, or understanding, or design. own laws of thought.

The mind recoils from this frightful picture, and feels that such Pantheism is only a specious name for the geometrical universe of Democritus, and the materialism of Comte. Indeed, thought and matter are necessary to our conceptions, and it does not much signify whether we exalt the one or the other, or a confusion of both, into the substance of this unintelligent automaton. It need only be remarked that between the extreme of idealism and materialism is this difference—that the one wholly ignores, the other entirely relies on, experience; while both concur in restraining the exercise of one of our mental functions. Thus is the mind thrown back, and forced to confess that it can know no more of the relation between God and the world than of the interaction of our own soul and body. Impenetrable mysteries surround either subject, which neither hypothesis nor experiment can fathom. But is there, then, no rational ground for belief in God? Of Revelation it is not here the place to speak; and we have shown metaphysics to be useless. Before we conclude, with Pascal, that man must be Pyrrhoniste et Chrétien soumis, let us see whether we cannot find some proof from experience and fact. Even Comte confesses that man cannot live without religion, and frames a wretched worship, in which the image of the race takes the place of God, and the emotions are satisfied by a diluted Mariolatry. Thus the foe of theology acknowledges that man has a religious instinct. This instinct—becoming nobler, clearer, and more purifying as man rises further from the brute—is the first strong footing for our faith. We may relinquish metaphysics to their fate, and find the true argument in experience—by seeking for God, not in the definitions of Being or the analysis of abstract notions, but in the lives of good men, in the support which belief has given them, in the good they have wrought for man, and the happiness they have secured themselves.

THE FRENCH STAGE .- M. AUGIER'S NEW COMEDY.

THE FRENCH STAGE.—M. AUGIER'S NEW COMEDY.

M. EMILE AUGIER has won the highest literary honour attainable in France—a seat in the Academy—by his comedies in verse or prose on a great variety of subjects. But his nineteenth, Le Fils de Giboyer, has made more noise than all the former eighteen put together—more than any French play since the Mariage de Figaro, or than any semi-literary semi-political incident since the famous (or infamous) prosecution of M. de Montalembert. It has set statesmen speculating, academicians quarrelling, audiences rioting, and readers wondering; for whatever causes of commotion may have existed in the circumstances of its appearance or the state of parties at the time, none adequately accounting for the result will be collected by any extent of perspicacity from the text. To add to the puzzle, the piece, having been in the first instance prohibited by the censorship, was taken by M. Rogier to the Emperor, who, contrary to the opinion of what are deemed his most influential counsellers, commanded the prohibition to be withdrawn. The best mode of making the pending controversy intelligible will be to give a brief outline of the plot.

Le Fils de Giboyer may be regarded in some sort as a continuation of Les Effrontes, by the same author, although only two characters are retained. It opens with a conference between the Marquis d'Auberive, a Legitimist of the old school with polished manners and loose morals, and the Baroness Pfeffers, an intriguing widow, who lends her salon to the party or faction for their place of meeting. Her position is somewhat compromised by the rumour that she had been the humble companion of her deceased husband's mother, and she wishes to improve it by a second marriage. She is a clever creation, but her close resemblance to "Lady Tartufe" must be admitted to detract from her originality. The Marquis is ready to forward her expectations on condition that she joins her influence with his to procure for Maréchal, a rich ironmaster, the honour of reading, as their

sentative in the Chamber, a speech prepared for the exposition of their principles.

The Marquis had been the dear friend of the first Madame Maréchal, who has left a charming daughter, Fernande, in whose establishment he naturally takes a deep interest. Indeed, he rather intrudes than suppresses his paternity. "Johe enfant! Je m'en vante." His plan is to marry her to his own distant relative and adopted heir, the Count d'Outreville; and to colour over the misalliance, he is anxious to acquire political importance for her father. The Count, one of the best characters in the piece, is a young devot whose mundane tendencies and inflammable temperament are in constant conflict with his religious professions. When the Marquis and Baroness have settled the more weighty matter, they touch upon one which M. Augier positively asserts involves the sole personality in the play:—

The Marquis. The gout has not prevented me from reading our journal.

involves the sole personality in the play:—

The Marquia. The gout has not prevented me from reading our journal. Do you know that the death of this poor Deodat is cruelly felt?

The Baroness. Ah, what a loss? What a disaster for our cause? What talent! what vigour! what sareasm!

The Marquis. He was the hussar of orthodoxy. He will live in our records under the name of angelic pamphleteer. Conviciator Angelicus. And now that we have done the right thing by his mighty shade—
The Baroness. You speak of him lightly enough, Marquis.

The Marquis. Since I have wept for him. Let us think about a substitute. The Baroness. Say a successor. Heaven does not raise up two such men one after the other.

The Marquis. And if I told you that I have put my hand on a second copy? Yes, Baroness, I have uncarthed a devilish pen, cynical, virulent,

* Le Fils de Giboyer. Comédie en Cinq Actes, en Prose. Par Emile Augier, de l'Académie Française. Pariz. 1863.

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which spits and splashes; a worthy who would lard his own father with epigrams for a moderate reward, and eat him, peppered and salted, for an

repigrams for a moderate reward, and eat him, peppered and salted, for an additional five francs.

The Barquis. Parblen! That is the effect of the combat; there are no longer mercenaries in the mélée; the blows they receive give them a conviction. I do not give our man a week to belong to us, body and soul.

Deodat can be no other than a well-known Ultramontane journalist, who, besides his more legitimate diatribes against French rivals or adversaries, is the author of sundry libels on England, the venom of which was neutralized by their transparent falsehood and absurdity. His successor, Giboyer, is an adventurer who has undergone a long apprenticeship of struggles and humiliations. He has been engaged in a series of degrading and compromising employments in the in a series of degrading and compromising employments in the press, some of which have led to his frequent incarceration; yet censure is softened by sympathy when we learn that the sole aim of his self-sacrificing career has been to provide for the education and eventual establishment of his son:—

A family of porters requires more than one generation to make a breach in society. All assaults are alike; the first assailants fall in the ditch, and make fascines with their bodies for those who follow. I was the sacrificed generation; it would have been too stupid to let no one profit by the sacrifice. . . We are prone to hobbies as we grow old; mine is to make Maximilian what I have not been able to be myself—an honourable and honoured man. It is my fancy to be a dung-heap, and to nourish a lily.

By a sublimity of abnegation, he has concealed from this son, who is illegitimate, the connecting link of relationship, and, when twitted with the concealment, replies:—

I have written a book which is the summary of all my experience and all my ideas. I believe it fine and true. I am proud of it; it reconciles me with myself; and yet I will not publish it under my name, for fear of my name prejudicing it. Well! If I do not sign my book, would you have me sign my son?

The son, Maximilian Gerard, is private secretary to Maréchal, whose wife is impressed by the notion that he, like his numerous predecessors, is in love with her. On discovering this, he complains to the Marquis, who had recommended him for the place:—

You should have warned me, Marquis, that I came here to be the patito of Madame Maréchal.

The Marquis. All! it is there that the shoe pinches. You have caught the good lady's fancy. Be of good heart; she will not force you to leave your cloak behind you. She is a romantic but platonic person. Her hero is not obliged to share in the romance; she supplies all the materials. She persuades herself that she is beloved, she fights terrible battles with herself, and finally triumphs over her imaginary dangers by exiling the seducer to a good appointment.

The scene in which, after resigning his secretaryship, he takes leave of her, is excellent:—

Madame M. You have inspired me with a true friendship. This is not an empty protestation, believe me. I hope you will one day put me to the

an empty protestation, believe me. I nope you will one day particle proof.

Max. Never.

Madame M. Why, never? Are you too proud to owe anything to an all but maternal affection?

Max. Ah, Madame, let us drop this impossible maternity.

Madame M. (looking down). May I not be at least your elder sister?

Max. No, Madame, no more my sister than my mother.

Madame M. (in a low tone). What can I be, then?

Max. Nothing.

Madame M. (after a short silence). Yes, you are right; all conspires to separate us. I was mad to ask you to return. Never see me again. I now understand your departure: you are an honest man, I thank you.

Max. (aside). There is no occasion.

Expended who had hastily confounded Maximilian with the

understand your departure: you are an honest man, I thank you.

Max. (aside). There is no occasion.

Fernande, who had hastily confounded Maximilian with the preceding secretaries, is attracted towards him by his spirit and disinterestedness, and an attachment between them, of rapid growth, is incidentally promoted by the Baroness. She, thinking that a match with the Count will exactly suit her, determines to break off his engagement with Fernande. This is effected by causing the speech confided to Maréchal to be withdrawn from him and given to another—the ostensible reason being that it will come with more effect from a Protestant member of the Chamber. Whilst Maréchal is meditating vengeance for the affront, he encounters Giboyer, who suggests that the best mode of vindicating his outraged dignity would be to rejoin his original party, the democrats, and make a crushing reply to the speech. This reply is written for him by Maximilian, and turns out a decided hit; but a rejoinder is required, and Maximilian is about to quit Europe for America. In this state of things, Maréchal hears that an apparently hopeless passion for his daughter is the real cause of the expatriation of his ex-secretary; and, from a combination of motives, half generous and half selfish, he consents to their union, which forms the consolatory conclusion of the plot.

The play was brought out at the Comedie Française, with the full force of the company, and the manner of acting is said to have given great additional point to the allusions which successive audiences persist in discovering, despite of the earnest and repeated protests of the author. In the preface to the third and fourth editions, he says:—

editions, he says:-

editions, he says:—

Let people say what they will, this comedy is not a political piece in the correct sense of the word; it is a social piece. It only attacks and defends ideas, abstractedly from every form of government. Its true title would be *Les Clericaux*, if this appellative was suited to the theatre. The party which it designates counts in its ranks men of all origins, partisans of the Empire, as well as partisans of the elder and younger branches of the Bourbons. Maréchal, actually deputy, the Marquis d'Auberive, Couturier de la Haute-Sarthe, formerly of the Chamber, represent in my comedy the three fractions of the clerical party, united in hatred or fear of the democracy; and if Gibbyer includes them all under the denomination of Legitimists, this is because in effect the Legitimists alone are logical, and do not abdicate, in combating, the spirit of '89.

He vehemently repels the imputation of having attacked the fallen or the weak:---

Where are the enemies I strike when prostrate? We see them on their legs in every tribune. They are in a fair way to mount the car of triumph; and when I, poor creature as I am, dare to pull them by the leg, they turn round indignantly and exclaim—"Respect for the conquered!" Of a verity, this is too comical.

Disclaimers and retorts are of no avail; and whilst crowded audiences at Paris are applauding the play for the sake of its alleged political satire, combinations are forming at Lyons and other provincial cities to hiss it from the stage. The Legitimists and Orleanists, claiming to be the sole or principal objects of attack, recriminate with the bitterest acrimony. M. de La Prade, also of the Academy, in a satirical poem entitled La Chasse aux Vaincus, accuses his colleague of every imaginable meanness; and M. Augier hurls back the personalities flung at him in a style, which may well raise a doubt whether the famous Forty are not losing sight of the original purpose of their institution—the purification and refinement of their tongue. In far better taste and temper, M. Prevost-Paradol, in the Revue des Deux Mondes, frankly admitting the real merits of the work, quietly exposes its improbabilities and inconsistencies; and suggests that, to suppose such results produced by such instruments, in a highly civilized community, is absurd. He also avows his belief that no one was more surprised at the reception of the play, and the interpretation more surprised at the reception of the play, and the interpretation

community, is absurd. He also avows his belief that no one was more surprised at the reception of the play, and the interpretation put upon it, than the author.

We have arrived at pretty nearly the same conclusions as M. Prevost-Paradol; and we are utterly at a loss to understand the burning indignation of the Vaincus, who take for granted that the party satirized is the great and powerful one which maintains the temporal sovereignty of the Pope, comprising a large section of Imperialists and Republicans, as well as the most illustrious members of what are called the "ancient parties." Then, if so, how or why is the official section of this party to escape scot-free? Why did they try to prevent the representation? And how, again, can it be supposed for a moment that the orators and journalists of the renowned "Party of Order" can be intended by the very commonplace or disreputable characters who are made to pass muster for them? Thus, the selection of a Protestant champion instead of Maréchal is applauded as a hit at M. Guizot, who is not a member of the Chamber, and, of all living celebrities, is the least likely to deliver a speech composed for him by a mercenary scribe. It is further to be observed that democracy has no great reason to be flattered by being made to owe its triumph to the intrigues and writings of a degraded adventurer.

Amidst all the darkness, confusion, and uncertainty in which we find ourselves involved, we still catch (or fancy we eatch) glimpses of light in two directions. We see the cruel dilemma to which a quick-witted people may be brought by an embargo on plain speaking and writing, and we see another specimen of the tortuous policy which keeps all Italy and half Europe in suspense. When the inscrutable autocrat of the Tuileries authorized this so-called libel on the Clericals or Parti-Prêtre, was he throwing up straws to try which way the wind blew? Or—a Carbonaro at heart—was he encouraging an underhand blow at the system of which he is the prop and mainstay before the world?

VERTEBRATED ANIMALS IN THE ZOOLOGICAL GARDENS.

So many of the achievements of the Zoological Society have been from time to time recorded in these columns, and the Gardens in the Regent's Park are thronged by so many eager Gardens in the Regent's Park are thronged by so many eager sight-seers, that the chief objects of interest contained therein must be pretty well known to most of our readers. Still, it is a satisfaction to be able to sit at home and recall the numerous and varied crowd of rare and curious animals which are there exhibited to the public view. Such an opportunity is offered by the little work we here propose to notice. It scarcely emerges from pamphlet-hood, but a compilation more suggestive of ideas, not merely to the zoologist, but to any thinking man, is not commonly to be met with. Though for some years past the Garden Guide has afforded much valuable information as to the animal population of the Society's menagerie, the present publication is, we believe, the first attempt ever made to give a complete catalogue of any portion of the collection. It has been drawn up, we learn from its pages, by Mr. Louis Fraser, a zoologist who was for many years an agent of the late Lord Derby, and who has displayed his activity as a natural-history collector in several out-of-the-way parts of the globe—chiefly in Africa and South America. Having been revised by their accomplished Secretary, Dr. Sclater, the list is now published by order of the Council of the Society.

The preface informs us that the collection, "which is supposed to contain the most extensive series of living animals in existence, embraces about LAGO specimens, illustrating 188 species of

The preface informs us that the collection, "which is supposed to contain the most extensive series of living animals in existence, embraces about 1,450 specimens, illustrating 188 species of mammals, 409 of birds, 62 of reptiles, and 23 of fishes, altogether 682 species of vertebrates;" but it is also stated that "a living collection being liable to perpetual change, it cannot of course be expected that a list of this sort can be absolutely correct at any given moment." The above quoted summary must be therefore taken as an approximation only; but from our own knowledge, we can fully endorse Dr. Sclater's assertion, that "the errors and omissions, as it at present stands, are not very numerous." Our limits necessarily preclude us from remarking on more than a

* List of Vertebrated Animals living in the Gardens of the Zoological Society of London. London: Longman & Co. 1862.

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very few of the distinguished captives who draw so many thousand visitors to the Regent's Park. Our first impression on looking over this calendar of prisoners is assuredly not unsatisfactory. We find that they do not, one and all, sit down and weep by the waters of the Regent's Canal. Whether, after the manner of Lovelace, and other "mindes innocent and quiet," they take the stone walls and iron bars, behind which they are harboured, for "an hermitage," we do not pretend to know. But one thing is certain—the softer passion rules in the Zoological Gardens, just as it does in the court, the camp, and the grove. Many of the inmates of this house of detention are in sufficiently easy circumstances to think of perpetuating their race. Unlike the unhappy Captain Gulliver at Brobdingnag, they are so far content with their lot as not to fear leaving a posterity of captives. "Bred in the Menagerie" appears again and again in the list, testifying to the success of the Society's efforts in acclimatizing animals—a success which is admitted on all hands, we believe, to have been wonderful, considering the disadvantages of matizing animals — a success which is admitted on all hands, we believe, to have been wonderful, considering the disadvantages of locality and restricted space. Some of these unions are of a kind peculiarly interesting to the naturalist. As regards the ducks, for example, interbreeding goes on to a very great extent among nearly all the genera which are well represented in the collection. We think it is unfortunate that the details of these crosses have We think it is unfortunate that the details of these crosses have not hitherto been made public. The Zoological Society has existed about five-and-thirty years, and we imagine that evidence must have been accumulated almost enough to make or mar that part of Mr. Darwin's well-known argument which rests on what is known of the phenomena of hybridism. The present list reveals only one fact bearing on the subject, but that is a noteworthy one, for it completely overthrows the commonly accepted theory that the mixed offspring of different species are in all cases infertile inter se. At page 85 we find enumerated three examples of hybrids between two perfectly distinct species, and even, according to modern classification, between two distinct genera of ducks "for three or four generations." There can be little doubt that a series of researches in this branch of experimental physiology, which might be carried on at no great loss, would place zoologists in a far better position with regard to a subject which is one of the most interesting, if not one of the most important, in natural history.

in a far better position with regard to a subject which is one of the most interesting, if not one of the most important, in natural history.

Looking more closely at the list, it appears to us that the weakest point of the menagerie is its series of Quadrumana. This is not alone caused by the lamented absence at the present moment of any of the higher Apes. Though no doubt it is a hard matter to keep monkeys in health in our changeable climate, yet we cannot but think that an improved building might easily be contrived for their habitation, and we are sure that any success in this respect would speedily give a profitable return for the outlay. We believe one of the chief requirements of a good Monkey-house to consist in its being made a trap to catch every available sunbeam. It is not merely warmth that is wanted—that could be supplied to any amount, as it is now, by hot-water pipes; but the thing needed is the cheerful and invigorating combination of warmth and light. Many animals, even among those of strictly nocturnal habits, love nothing more than to bask in the glare of midday, and the deprivation of this luxury must be a hardship as serious to a baboon as to a Neapolitan or a negro. We are of course aware that the inmates of the dens on the south side of the present Monkey-house are able to take the air in fine weather, and we own that the hateful gloom of its interior may not alone be enough to account for its evil influences. Something is to be put down to the ventilation, which is not always perfect. And, though we hardly know whether it is the case, we can fancy its inhabitants are inclined to occasional indiscretions in the way of diet, which, together with their disposition to bully a weakly fellow-prisoner. may perhaps require more constant attention to be tants are inclined to occasional indiscretions in the way of diet, which, together with their disposition to bully a weakly fellow-prisoner, may perhaps require more constant attention to be checked than they now receive. We earnestly hope that before long Jacko may find himself in a crystal palace of his own, where he can crack the children's nuts and kill his comrade's fleas to the unmitigated delight of himself and his visitors, and all in the bread light of der.

broad light of day.

Many Scansorial birds— in their own class analogues of the Monkeys—on the contrary, thrive much better in confinement. The oldest inhabitant of the Gardens is a large black Parrot from Monkeys—on the contrary, thrive much better in confinement. The oldest inhabitant of the Gardens is a large black Parrot from Madagascar, which, it appears, was presented to the menagerie in June 1827. This venerable bird is not of a prepossessing appearance. The public vote him decidedly ugly, and all, except a few who know his real worth, are apt to pass on to his more gaudy brethren. Yet he is of a friendly disposition, readily offers his head to be scratched, and scarcely ever fails to reward the giver of a dainty with a scream, which, notwithstanding the din around, thrills through the ears of all present. In point of age, however, he is run hard by a neighbour, a Pale-headed Parrokeet, from South Australia, who first made his appearance at the Gardens in 1830, four years before the colonization of his native country. Would that there were a chance of seeing among these patriarchal parrots a living representative of that singular genus to which naturalists have applied the name of Nestor—somewhat unfortunately, since longevity is anything but characteristic of them, as a group at least. Of the four species known to have existed, one, which formerly inhabited Phillip Island, is believed, on good grounds, to be quite extinct. The like doom, if it has not already overtaken them, no doubt awaits the other three, which are natives of New Zealand. Stuffed skins of each of the quartett may be seen in the Bird Gallery of the British Museum, where they are very properly entitled to the distinction of the separate glass-case in which they are displayed. As much may be said for the Strigops, or Owl-like Parrot, and a good many other curious birds, chiefly belonging to the Antipodes, over whose heads the same gloomy fate hangs. Of the three or four kinds of Apteryx, indeed, a solitary example of the commonest species has slumbered through nearly ten years of captivity in the remotest den of the Gardens—occasionally varying the dull routine of her life by laying an enormous egg.

through nearly ten years of captivity in the remotest den of the Gardens—occasionally varying the dull routine of her life by laying an enormous egg.

A few years ago, it was believed that not more than one or two species of animals had been extirpated by man's agency. There was the celebrated instance of the Dodo, that corpulent and clumsy fowl which the early navigators of the Indian Ocean found inhabiting the Island of Mauritius. A less known case was that of an amphibious mammal—the Rhytina stelleri—which in the last century frequented the Northern shores of Asia, but had not been heard of for perhaps a couple of generations. More recently, the labours of naturalists have proved that these were no exceptional occurrences. The late Mr. Hugh Strickland showed that, instead of one species of Dodo having been, as was thought, exterminated in Mauritius and the neighbouring islands, probably some four or five kinds of allied birds have ceased to exist in the Mascarene group. Professor Owen has, from semi-fossil remains, described twice as many species of gigantic birds which were until a very late period man's cotemporaries in New Zealand. Other instances of the same sort are being not unfrequently brought forward, and some of them much nearer home. Even in Europe, there is plausible reason to believe that the Great Auk, a bird which in the memory of men yet living, bred on one of the Orkney Islands, has vanished for ever. How many species there are, not only of birds, but of animals generally, whose existence is trembling in the balance, we know not. We have already named several. The Thylacine of Van Diemen's Land, a most curious beast, whose mutton-eating propensities make every Tasmanian shepherd its enemy, is certain to disappear in a few years; while the Island-Hen of Tristan d'Acunha, a bird closely resembling the common Moor-Hen of our ponds, but, unlike it, incapable of flight, is likely to succumb to the first invasion of cats, dogs, or swine, which the freak or the fate of some ship-master may let loos mention these two last remarkable animals because the Zoological Gardens at the present time contain an example of each. It is much to be wished that all who have it in their power should use every means to contribute to the Society specimens of similar expiring races. Their continuance on the earth, even for a short time longer, must be looked on as highly improbable, and to place them in an establishment which is at once one of the most popular, one of the most instructive, and one of the best conducted in the kingdom, is, we may be sure, the fittest use that can be made of them.

BURKE'S VICISSITUDES OF FAMILIES.

BURKE'S VICISSITUDES OF FAMILIES.*

SIR BERNARD BURKE has now ended an undertaking which must have been a labour of love to an Ulster King-of-Arms. And doubtless it has been not the less a labour of love because it has been chequered with somewhat of that sadness with which the course of true love is commonly attended. Sir Bernard has still to mourn over the sight of Peers and Baronets shorn of all landed estates, and sometimes driven to take refuge in the workhouse. He still laments over "the fatal results which accrue from the separation of title and estate"—a "notion" which, he allows, "has been a kind of crotchet with him." Sir Bernard seems, however, to have given up the wildest form of his "crotchet"—that by which he proposed specially to tax all honest and respectable Peers and Baronets who pay their debts and live within their incomes, in order to save the unsteady and spendthrift members of their several orders from the natural consequences of vice and imprudence. He is now contented with asking that some portion of landed estate should be inalienably attached to every title, so that no Peer or Baronet should ever be reduced to absolute beggary. Perhaps it is impossible for us to throw ourselves into the state of mind of a King-at-Arms. In our prosaic view, it seems a less evil that Sir John or Sir Thomas should now and then have, like other people, to choose between working and starving, than that the quantity of land which Sir Bernard's plan would require should be taken out of that general circulation which most people wish to render more easy instead of more difficult. There may be something very romantic in tying up a few acres for ever and ever, so that the descendant of a great man may never starve; but Sir Bernard must make the hereditary sanctuary incapable of mortgage as well as of sale, and somehow we cannot help fancying that this inalienable estate would get worse cultivated than either the great or the small estates round about it. Again, of all inheritances, that which sentiment would mo

Vicissitudes of Femilies. Third Series. By Sir Bernard Burke, LL.D. London: Longman & Co. 1863.

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of working with their hands, tempted to envy every rich man and to despise every poor man, would form about as deplorable a class as one can fancy. The persons with whom we should sympathize are men of a very different kind. If the heir of a fallen family, titled or untitled, be really worth anything, his position will be, of all things, the thing to spur him on to work hard in some calling or other, by which he may, if possible, recover the old estate, or, at all events, buy himself a new one. Who can fail to sympathize with the abiding wish of Warren Hastings—a wish gratified after so many years—to be at last Hastings of Daylesford, like his fathers? Warren Hastings, indeed, inherited no title; but if, as Sir Bernard Burke is bound to think, there is anything in blood, the head of the house of Hastings was as well of Daylestord, like his lathers? Warren Hastings, indeed, innertied no title; but if, as Sir Bernard Burke is bound to think, there is anything in blood, the head of the house of Hastings was as well worth pensioning as the spendthrift heir of a new-made baronet. But surely it was a much finer thing to recover Daylesford by his own act and deed than to have had some wretched fragment of the Daylesford estate tied hopelessly round his neck. Sir Bernard himself has a story of the daughters of a ruined Irish squire, who, as we understand him, are at this moment getting rich again by following the unromantic calling of washerwomen. If they can wash themselves back again into the family estate, we shall think it much more creditable than if some relic of it had been artificially preserved to them. Sir Bernard's nostrum, in short, seems absurd to every practical man. It is nothing less than an attempt artificially to hinder the course of nature. It is of a piece with sumptuary laws, laws to fix the rate of wages, and generally all legislation about things which are best left to settle themselves.

Sir Bernard's present volume, like the earlier ones, contains a good deal of curious and interesting matter, though often defaced by a twaddling and vulgar way of telling the stories. The Ulster King-at-Arms writes a good deal in the style of a country newspaper. He has always got something to admire, though we must

King-at-Arms writes a good deal in the style of a country newspaper. He has always got something to admire, though we must say his taste is rather eclectic. Sometimes he gets enraptured over the eloquence of the Earl of Carlisle, sometimes over that of the Daily Telegraph. He has one advantage in this present volume—that most of his tales are nearer our own time, and therefore more credible, than those in the earlier series. Yet ever and amon things crop out which show that the standard of historical criticism which prevails at the Herald's College differs not a little from that which comes forth from the War Office. Perhaps, however, Sir Bernard will shelter himself under the shadow of a person of still higher official dignity. But Premiers are liable to err. Even Emperors sometimes get wrong when they talk of things a thousand years back. But let us hear Ulster:—

It is marvellous how the possession of ever so small a landed interest keeps a family together for century after century. A statement made by Lord Palmerston, who is always so happy and apposite in his illustrations, gives great force to this assertion. In a speech to a Hampshire audience, at the opening of a local railway, his lordship observed, that there was a small estate in the New Forest, which had belonged to the lime-burner Purkis, who picked up the body of Rufus, and carried the royal corpse in his humble cart to Winchester, and which had come down, through an uninterrupted male line of ancestry, to a worthy yeoman of the same name, now resident on the exact same Farm, near Stoney Cross, on the Ringwood Road, eight miles from Romsey.

But a case of still longer descent, in persons not allied to rank and fortune, may be quoted. At Ambrose's Barn, on the borders of Thorp, near Chertsey, resides a farmer, Mr. Wapshot, whose ancestors have dwelt on the same spot ever since the time of Alfred the Great, by whom the Farm was granted to Reginald Wapshot.

"How much more safe the Vassal than the Lord:

Napshot.
"How much more safe the Vassal than the Lord:
Low skulks the hind beneath the rage of pow'r,
And leaves the wealthy Traitor in the Tow'r:
Untouched his cottage, and his slumbers sound,
Though confiscation's vultures hover round."

Just fancy "Reginald Wapshot" in the days of Alfred. Fancy Lord Palmerston knowing that one of the "pauci rusticanorum" who, according to William of Malmesbury, carried away the carcase of the Red King in their "rheda caballaria," bore the highly eleventh-century sounding name of "Purkis," and that his lineal male heir now lives eight miles from Romsey! Truly creat is the faith of an Ultica King at Augs!

great is the faith of an Ulster King-at-Arms!

Some of Sir Bernard's genealogical stories naturally lead him back from England to Normandy. In one place he gets eloquent over the town of Caen :-

Over the town of Caen:—

Sir Henry Oglander's immediate ancestor came from Caen, a fit town to inaugurate so lengthy and so honourable a pedigree. Caen, indeed, has this in common with the Oglander race, that, among the cities of Europe, it is the one which has, perhaps, had the most sustained duration. It has constantly borne, through ages to the present time, a combined reputation for profound learning, historic celebrity, and architectural splendour.

From such a city, then, whose churches, schools, monuments, and very streets, preserve at this hour their pristine vigour and grace, it well became an Oglander to issue when about to found a line that eight hundred years have left unscathed and without a sign of dying out.

have left unscathed and without a sign of dying out.

We rather rubbed our eyes over this. Caen has had "the most sustained duration among the cities of Europe." We suppose this is the grand style for "is the oldest city in Europe." Yet Rome, Athens, Cadiz, and a few others which made some noise in the world before Caen was heard of, not only still exist, but sometimes give rise to "questions," "solutions," and "complications." But what cannot be expected from a town which goes through so wonderful a process as "inaugurating a pedigree?" The town of Caen "inaugurated the pedigree" of the Oglanders. But an eminent inhabitant of Caen—our sincere respect for whom makes us sorry to see him in Sir Bernard's clutches—has, according to Sir Bernard, performed feats of augury yet more astonishing. Could Romulus and all his vultures have "inaugurated a roll,"

or—still more mysterious ceremony—have "inaugurated the affixing of a list?"—

affixing of a list?"—

Dives, in the eleventh century, was one of the chief ports of the Duchy of Normandy. M. de Caumont, a very emineat Norman sçavant and archaologist, erected in 1861, on the very spot of the mighty embarkation, a column, in commemoration. The recent fête at Dives was held under the auspices of the same learned gentleman, to inaugurate the affixing in the old church there of a new and carefully compiled list of the companions of William the Conqueror in his conquest of England in 1666. The fête was intended to be international, and an invitation was publicly given to all English interested in the locality (and who are not?), to come to the ceremony. Unfortunately, whether from the inclemency of the weather, or, more probably, from the notice not reaching English ears, no English person attended. This is the more to be regretted, as the famous descent upon England may be now looked on as a subject akin to the feelings of, and worthy of celebration by, both English and Normans. and Normans.

and Normans.

We are quite sure, had the English only known of such a fete, crowds of them would have attended; for what could more come home to the better and more educated classes of English people than the inauguration of a roll which contains the greatest names amongst us—a roll to which the proudest feel prouder still to belong, and which may be said to form the very household words of our glory—the roll, in fact, of what has since been the best and bravest aristocracy in the universe.

hold words of our glory—the roll, in fact, of what has since been the best and bravest aristocracy in the universe.

Sir Bernard writes this in all simplicity. We should I...ve said that Englishmen were not in the habit of flocking to "inaugurations" of the kind, only we remember the twenty thousand Anglo-Saxons who gathered together at Wantage to "inaugurate" either King Alfred or Mr. Martin Tupper. But as, out of twenty thousand Anglo-Saxons, only one hundred got any dinner, the mineteen thousand and nine hundred were likely to eschew demonstrations, ovations, and inaugurations for the rest of their days. But why Englishmen should be expected to cross the sea — especially in inclement weather—on purpose to inaugurate William the Conqueror, or his roll, or the affixing of his roll, is altogether beyond us. How many Frenchmen should we get together to inaugurate Henry V., or how many Scotchmen to inaugurate Edward I.? The last time we did the tombs at Westminster Abbey, we saw with sorrow that Henry had pretty well lost his head, and that the words SCOTORVM MALLEVS on the tomb of Edward were less clear than they ought to be. We could not help thinking that a Frenchman and a Scot had been there before us. Now, not Englishmen, but Huguenots and Jacobins, have left William as tombless as Harold. Were it otherwise, we would engage not to scribble on, or in any way damage, his effigy. But we really cannot see why we should be called on to give him an inauguration. If it be said, as is very true, that England eventually gained by his coming, so it is possible that the vast superiority of Normandy to the rest of France may be partly owing to the wise administration of John, Duke of Bedford. But how many Normans would come, in inclement weather, to an inauguration of Duke John? We recommend this whole question of many Normans would come, in inclement weather, to an inauguration of Duke John? We recommend this whole question of inaugurations to the serious reconsideration of Sir Bernard. Perhaps he would not do amiss to take Lord Ebury into his cenfidence. Here is a paragraph which concerns Mr. Jones of Clytha, and Mr. Buggey of Bedford. But is an Ulster King-at-Arms quite a disinterested witness on the point?—

this interested witness on the point?—

The Hovels, who were so ancient that they are said (with truth, I think,) to have allowed the lordly Uffords license to use their arms, ended in the last century, or beginning of this, in a poor gentleman, who lived in or near Great Ashfield. Yet, one Hovel had been Esquire of the body to Henry V. Some of this Esquire's descendants chose, without royal license, to change their name, and, with more humility than some people of the present day, took upon themselves, not a proud cognomen, but the common one of Smith. They were henceforward (as should be all who adopt surnames without the Crown's permission) designated very properly with an alias, and called Hovel alias Smith. An Elizabeth Hovel of this family was wife of the Rev. Thomas Thurlow, and mother of the famous Lord Chancellor, the first Lord Thurlow of Ashfield.

But, though Sir Bernard's book contains some absurdities, it But, though Sir Bernard's book contains some absurdities, it also contains some really interesting and remarkable stories, such as those of the Earls of Anglesey, of Philip d'Auvergne, the "Tragedy of Corstorphine," and what Sir Bernard calls a "Tale of Magic on Loch Lomond"—that is to say, a tale of the utter villany of a certain Sir John Colquboun in the seventeenth century. We are glad also to find that Sir Bernard can record "the Rise of the Strutts of Belper" with sympathy; but would be have done so till the acquisition of a peerage brought them within his own proper desugn?

Rise of the Strutts of Belper "with sympathy; but would be have done so till the acquisition of a peerage brought them within his own proper demain?"

One would hardly have expected to find a King-at-Arms accepting Sir Henry Spelman's doctrine of a curse working on the owners of abbey lands. Yet Sir Bernard seems unhesitatingly to admit it in his account of "The Fate of the Earls Marischal." We do not see why, to say the least, Sir Bernard should have picked out this particular case. If the curse of sacrilege accounts for the fate of the Earls Marischal, it accounts equally for the fate of numbers of other people in Sir Bernard's own stories. If he does not believe it in other cases, certainly it is rather hard measure to pick out this particular one. For it does not appear that Earl Marischal was at all the destroyer of Deir Abbey. He simply inherited its already confiscated lands, and he made a noble use of them in the foundation of Marischal College at Aberdeen.

One story we think Sir Bernard is hardly justified in introducing. This is, that of "The Fate of Seaforth." It is said that in the seventeenth century, a certain warlock, or wizard, was unjustly hanged by a Countess of Seaforth. He pronounced a prophecy of horrors against the Seaforth family, the latter part of which Sir Bernard veils in asterisks. He adds:—

I must offer an explanation concerning the fragmentary nature of the

I must offer an explanation concerning the fragmentary nature of the Warlock's prophecy. He uttered it in all its horrible leagth; but I suppress the last postion, which is as yet unfulfilled, and which, therefore, I am un-

stage of the art:—

"This part of the process," he says, "is based on the property possessed by the bichromates, during their reduction by the action of light, of rendering insoluble certain organic substances, such as gum, gelatine, and albumen, with solutions of which they may be mixed. In virtue of this property, if a solution of gelatine and bichromate of potassa is spread on papert, and, when dry, exposed to light under a negative of an engraving or a plan, the lines of the drawing will be represented by insoluble lines on the coated paper, while the ground, having been protected from the action of the light by the dense negative, will remain soluble. If the paper is now coated with greasy printer's ink, and damped at the back, the soluble parts will swell, and the lines will be in intaglio; and when rubbed gently with a sponge dipped in gum and water, the ink overlying the soluble parts (now again viseid and in a dissolving state) will be removed, while it will adhere to the insoluble parts. The engraving or plan will then appear in black ink, which can be transferred to the surface of zinc or stone. This is the gist of the whole process; but though it appears so simple, in practice it requires care and judgment, and many difficulties were met and overcome before very good results were obtained."

The author proceeds to describe the best kind of paper for the

which can be transferred to the surface of zame of stone. This is the glist of the whole process; but though it appears so simple, in practice it requires care and judgment, and many difficulties were met and overcome before very good results were obtained."

The author proceeds to describe the best kind of paper for the purpose—which is found to be the ordinary bank-post—and the method of coating it with the sensitive solution. Then follow instructions as to the amount of the exposure under the negative which is necessary, and as to the composition of the ink used for coating the bichromate print. Infinite delicacy seems to be required in the operation of cleaning the surface of the print. When the ground of the print has been successfully cleared of ink, and the gum has been thoroughly removed by repeated baths of tepid water, the print, as soon as dry, is ready for transferring to zinc, from which the printing is to take place. This is effected in the usual manner. Then the transfer so made on the plate is etched with a decoction of Aleppo galls. We are told, that from a zinc-plate so prepared, at least fifteen hundred copies may be printed off without any perceptible deterioration.

Such is the ingenious and beautiful process which is probably destined to receive much further development, and to supersede, in time, most of the old-fashioned methods of manual engraving on various materials. We could have wished that this valuable Report had contained some at least approximate estimates of the cost of photo-zineography, as compared with its more immediate rivals—drawing on stone, and engraving on wood. As the process is not patented, we hope that some enterprising photographer will take it up as a speculation. The difficulty of illustrating books, on account of the expense of engraving, is very serious. There are many subjects which require more plates or diagrams for their proper elucidation than can be affirded by publishers or writers under the present system. In particular, we hope to see the coarse Anast

willing to relate. Every other part of the prediction has most literally and accurately come to pass; but let us earnestly hope that the course of future events may at length give the lie to the avenging curse of the Warlock. The last clause of the prophecy is well known to many of those versed in Highland family tradition; but it must not be published, and I trust that it may remain unfulfilled.

It cannot be very pleasant to people who are living, and who are mentioned by name, to read in a book that they or their descend-ants are to suffer something very horrible, but not to be told

Finally, we must beg Sir Bernard Burke not to quote Greek and Latin, or, if that be too hard, at least to quote them accu-rately. The words, Amici. Pol, me occidisti, are not likely to occur in any copy of Horace, except that owned by Dr. Cumming; and the printer of the Glasgow Homer would have shuddered at the look of κορυθαίλος Φαιδιμός Ἐκτωρ.

PHOTO-ZINCOGRAPHY AND PHOTO-LITHOGRAPHY.

PHOTO-ZINCOGRAPHY AND PHOTO-LITHOGRAPHY.

SOME months ago, in commenting upon Mr. Earle's edition of some Anglo-Saxon fragments pertaining to the history of St. Swithin, we took occasion to speak briefly of the new photo-zincographic process by which the pages of that ancient manuscript were reproduced in facsimile. That work was, we believe, the first for which photo-zincographic printing was employed, although the process has been some time in use for the multiplication of copies of the Ordnance Survey. Since then, several portions of the Domesday Book have been printed in the same way at Southampton, with an accuracy and precision to which the most careful manual lithographic drawing can make no pretension. We are very glad indeed that Colonel Sir H. James, the able Director of the Topographical Department of the War Office, has now issued, under the sanction of the Secretary of State for War, an official account of the various processes which are employed with such signal success in the department over which he presides. Some notice of the circumstances which led to the invention and rapid perfection of photo-zincographic printing may not be unacceptable to our readers.

When it had been finally determined to adopt four scales for the National Survey, the discovery of some method of reducing a map from one scale to another, more expeditious than the use of the old "pentagraph," was soon found to be a matter of first necessity. It occurred to Sir Henry James to try whether photography could not be made available for the purpose. Some experiments were made under his direction by Captain Elphinstone, at Southampton, which were highly successful. The first considerable difficulty which had to be met was not, it seems, a material one connected with the process, but a Parliamentary inquiry. Sir Denham Norreys declared in the House of Commons that no plans, reduced by photography, could possibly be correct. Accordingly, a commission was appointed, under the chairmanship of Sir Roderick Murchison, "to report upon t

tive. Further, the saving effected by the process was very large indeed.

The next step in advance was the simplification of the process for transferring the photographic reduced copy to the copper-plate. This was due to Captain Scott, who had succeeded to the charge of this branch of the Survey Department. Experimenting with Mr. Pouncey's carbon printing, and afterwards adopting Mr. Asser's suggestion of obtaining prints in lithographic ink for transfer to stone, Captain Scott developed the method of chromo-carbon printing which is now employed at Southampton. A chance question led Sir H. James himself to hit upon the idea of transferring such chromo-carbon prints to zinc or stone, not by manual engraving, but by a chemical action — which is the essence of the new arts, of which this present volume professes to give a history. A lady happened to ask him, in the winter of 1859, to recommend to her an inexpensive method of copying and printing some etchings which she had made. After some reflection, he had one of them photographed, and then copied in a chromo-carbon print, which was immediately transferred to zinc. "And this," he says, "was the first photo-zincograph ever taken here or elsewhere." It is not unimportant to place this fact upon record. For it so happened that the identical process was discovered independently, on the other side of the globe, very nearly at the same time. Mr. J. W. Osborne, of the Survey Department in Australia, had been led by precisely similar reasons to apply to stone the same process which Sir H. James had used upon zinc. In fact, the transfer may be made, it would seem, to almost any material suitable for printing. For instance, Sir H. James says that photo-papyrography—the discovery of which was the result of an accidental manipulative mistake by one of the assistant photographers—is a most useful form of the process, which may be employed when only one or two copies of a print are required. A generic name for the process seems to be much needed.

* On Photo-Zincography and other Photographic Processes employed at the Ordanace Survey Office, Southampton, by Captain A. de C. Scott, R.E., under the Direction of Colonel Sir Henry James, R.E., F.R.S., &c. London: Longman & Co. 1862.

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every line, or point, can be guaranteed, not by the fallible care of the most conscientious editor, but by the infallible exactness of a mechanical operation. Next, a copy of a legal indenture, dated '1802, and reduced to a quarter of the original size, reminds us of the extraordinary capacity of this new art in reducing facsimiles—without injury to their accuracy—to any scale that may be required by the limits of a page. Its applicability to specially chartographic purposes is well illustrated by plates of the 6-inch to the mile survey of part of Cumberland, and a "hill-sketch" from Yorkshire, containing the Great and Little Whernsides. Finally, we have four subjects of high art. Two of these are antique vases, reduced from the engravings of Piranesi. Of these, Sir H. James remarks that the whole of this artist's works could be reproduced in this manner "at a very trifling cost, and would give valuable instruction to thousands who are now unable to afford the expense, often enormous, of drawing and engravings." Besides, we have a reduction of a complicated decorative panel, from Raffaelle's work in the Vatican, made from an engraving by Volpato; and, as the last specimen of all, a reduced copy of Dorigny's engraving of the Transfiguration, which is a perfect marvel of mechanical art. We must repeat our thanks to the able scientific officers who have not only invented a new art of the highest utility and importance, but have given us so complete and yet modest account of their discovery. but have given us so complete and yet modest account of their discovery.

MY GOOD FOR NOTHING BROTHER.

A CELEBRATED composer is said to have been once found by a friend in tears, and, on being asked the cause, to have attributed his grief to the reflection that, by a mathematical necessity, the changes upon the seven musical notes must in the course of centuries be exhausted, and the science of music must therefore one day cease. It is difficult for the diligent reader of novels to avoid the fear that some day or other a similar fate must befall his favourite pursuit. There must be an end at last to all the possible circumstances under which two human beings can marry or be prevented from marrying; and, at the present rate of consumption, the end cannot be very far off. In fact, signs are not wanting that the famine of incident is already beginning to set in. French novelists, more sensitive to the first approaches of tediousness than their English brethren, have already begun to feel the pressure of distress, and are seeking the raw material of their art in every form of monstrous and distorted feeling that a morbid imagination can create. In England the difficulty has taken a more pleasing shape. There is more and more a tendency among the younger race of novelists to penetrate into the lower strata of society in the search after a new vein of story. Novelty is gained for the monotonous old picture of lovemaking by filling up the background with the manners and customs of a class who are as strange as South Sea islanders to the novel-reading public. There is necessarily something unreal in the vivid interest which has been excited of late years by delineations of the habits of the agricultural and manufacturing poor. Photographed too accurately, they would hardly gratify the fastidious demands of an educated novel-reader. But still the school of which Adam Bede is the most distinguished specimen does a great deal of good. The mutual ignorance of classes is the one great stain of English manners — the only dead-point at which school of which Adam Bede is the most distinguished specimen does a great deal of good. The mutual ignorance of classes is the one great stain of English manners—the only dead-point at which the machinery of our institutions is apt to hitch. Novelists may be pardoned their high colouring and poetic exaggerations, if their writings have any tendency to melt away the intolerance which refinement always breeds in an English nature. If the public whom they address are to have their interest bespoken for any portion of the lower classes, it is as well that it should not be, as heretofore, exclusively reserved for convicts and prostitutes. It heretofore, exclusively reserved for convicts and prostitutes. It is high time that the "sacred poet" of the plodding agricultural

heretofore, exclusively reserved for convicts and prostitutes. It is high time that the "sacred poet" of the plodding agricultural labourer should arise.

The best part of the book before us is undoubtedly that which concerns the least distinguished personages. Gideon, Phosa, Mrs. Gruff, are drawn with the unconscious skill which a perfect and long-continued familiarity with the models confers. Even the monthly nurse, Mrs. Baker, though she does not occupy any large space on the canvas, will be readily recognised by any one whose lot it has been to come across that irritating specimen of humanity. Aunt Patty and Dr. Lansdale, who are evidently introduced because the writer knew two people who resembled them, and thought the description of them might amuse others as much as the originals had amused himself, are natural and well drawn. But the two or three heroines, and the big villain, and the impulsive hero, are drawn very much as a person would be likely to draw them who had not lived in the society of big villains, and had not much experience of the way they looked and acted, or made those about them look and act. They are described from the ideal; and to the average Englishman, who practically knows very little of villains except in the shape of garotters, the ideal is mainly a reproduction of what he has read in other novels. There is no want of ability in the execution of these characters, but the mould in which they are cast is conventional and inherited. The style is good, the narrative lively; the villain is very villanous, the heroine warm and virtuous, the hero manly and loving; but they reproduce familiar types. They lack the life and freshness which distinguish the inferior characters of the story. The former are inserted because the writer is a novelist, the latter because he

is a thoughtful observer. The latter have grown up spontaneously in his mind—the former have the appearance of having been manufactured to order.

This novel has one great merit—that, except in the very impassioned scenes, the characters do not make Parliamentary speeches to each other. The writer has recognised the fact, to which the mass of novel writers find it very difficult to attain, that mankind do not habitually converse in set sentences. Perhaps which the mass of novel writers find it very difficult to attain, that mankind do not habitually converse in set sentences. Perhaps as good a sample of his style as any other is a passage in which the hero and the benevolent elergyman try to induce a poor couple to emigrate. The villain, Mr. Chester, has contrived to shut up a man for a game-law offence, who in reality was only engaged in bird's-nesting; and the man is so obtuse upon the subject of the laws of property, that his benevolent friends think that the sooner he betakes himself to a new country the better. But the wife, though in the extreme of distress, will not hear of moving:—

Phosa's face was swollen with weeping, and she wore, in compliment to some distinguished relative, a rusty black gown, with the sleeve of which she had so often, on that morning, stemmed the tide of grief, that the piney blooms were almost as dark as the sloe-black eyes.

She glanced furtively round as they approached, and seizing soiled hats and pinafores, with garments of her own, unlike anything we have seen worn, an old comb and brush, and part of a looking-glass, she stored all hastily into one bundle behind the door, propping it back with a rickety chair of infantine proportions. After this she shook and beat a cushion of patchwork, very soiled and worn, but probably valuable as containing reminiscences of court robes, adorning the persons of the Tubbs' family in more prosperous days; and, kicking a dog from the fireside, she advanced the chair and cushion to meet Dr. Lansdale, praying him to be seated, and sevens.

excuss the litter in which he found her, for everything was in sixes and sevens.

The dog howled so terribly, that this prelude was entirely lost, and Phosa's foot would have repeated the chastisement, but the doctor exclaimed, "Spare Cuby, I beseech you, for, like Pythagoras, I recognise in his voice the soul of a departed friend." He patted the dog kindly, and the poor creature crept timidly beneath the family throne, rendered conspicuous by the Tubbs' cover. "Phosa, Mr. Meynell and I have seen Gideon." "I'll apod all t' watter in t' Sedge wadn't wash him clean. But I'll believe no ill agin' him." "Nor would we wish you," he answered, mildly. "Our errand is peace. Gideon longs for liberty. If you forward his plan, I see no reason why your separation should be prolonged. Mr. Chester is determined to proceed against Gideon, and permit the law to punish his offence. There is full evidence. We caunot hope to appease his anger unless you consent to emigrate. Will you permit your husband to pine in a wretched gaol, or accompany him to the back woods of America?" "Nay, nay, doctor; if we are to be transported, Government may tak' t' job. I suppose Chester isn't baith judge and jury? But the de'il's a busy bishop in his ain diocese, and he'd drown us in a teaspoonful o' watter, wad Chester."

Chester."

"Mr. Chester will not be judge, nor yet jury, Phosa," remarked Mr. Meynell. "He is a witness. He caught Gideon poaching. We cannot dispute the fact. Seriously consider the future, before you refuse our offer. Money and clothing provided, what do you fear?"

"If ye all tak' agin' us, we may pack up as fast as we can, belike. Botteney Bay's t' next prisson for Gideon. Chester will lie as fast as a cat can lick a dish till he gains his cause. I've twa bairns i' Mowbray churchyard, and I'd as lief be there mysel' now; for all my family's laid there. As to t' Varnells, they bury anywhere, without cake and hat-bands. I'll dee i' Mowbray Work'us, rather than scheme off to fureign woods. Gideon can please his sel'."

bray Work'us, rather than scheme off to fureign woods. Gideon can please his sel!"

"Phosa, you must one day repent your selfish policy. Your duty to your husband demands this sacrifice. Apart from the scene of his disgrace, Varnell would become a new man. Old associations are difficult to overthrow. By an energetic, virtuous example, you may urge him to a noble and independent career, or you may sink him to the lowest degradation. Remember you are his chosen helpmate—bone of his bone, flesh of his flesh. When others forsake and shun him, you must sustain your husband."

"Whatever I does, I'll do here, doctor. I've hurd o' them gowld countries, and its murder and rapin' there. I've been born and brought up respectable. We gav' plum-cakes at funerals, when t' Martins and Meccas gav' sponge-biscuits, and them keeping cows at t' same time! I've al'ays said to Gideon, Let me have decent cake at my burial, and t' big bell, 'at has tolled for all 't Tubbs' amily, if I lie wit'out a coffin. I'll be bound there's no bell in them parts—nothing more solemn than bees swarming. Nay, nay; dog-burial won't suit a Tubbs."

At this crisis of imaginary humiliation, Phosa drenched the black sleeve afresh with brine, and a fat child, suffering from diseased head, nestled in her lap, and cried too.

"Wisht! with him," she said, sharply, "or t' gentleman will tak' him to prisin." The big boy sobbed more. "He's sae mean, is Bobby; he's up to't. He missed father sin' dinner-time, and he's not right, full or fasting."

Mr. Meynell tried every argument to induce Phosa to recard the projected.

fasting."
Mr. Meynell tried every argument to induce Phosa to regard the projected

Mr. Meynell tried every argument to induce rhosa to regard the projected emigration favourably.

"We's got on somehows," she continued. "We can't be poorer, and we can't be more looked down upon. But it's God's will, and I'll howld up my head among 'em all yet, for being respectable. Lady Chester ask t' Mowbray folk about our funerals."

bray folk about our funerals."

The successful characters in the book, like that of Phosa, are so because they have been drawn simply with a view of reproducing people as they are, and not with a by-object of any kind. When they are less successful, it is because the writer, like many young authors, has a purpose distinct from the interest of his tale. He desires not only to hold a mirror up to nature, but also to erect a guide-post for young people. The characters who turn out happily are meant to be models, and those who get into trouble are dressed up as shocking examples. This would be very laudable and desirable if the two ends were compatible with each other. But, unhappily, in this disordered world providential judgments are nearly as much fictions of the novelist's imagination as ruling passions. The wicked man has as much chance of flourishing like a green bay-tree as anybody else; and if he does come to a bad end, it is generally more because he is a fool than because he is a knave. Characters, therefore, which are drawn upon the other principle, of putting

^{*} My Good for Nothing Brother. By Wickliffe Lane. London: Ward & Lock. 1862.

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the ways of Providence under a glass beehive, and showing, step by step, how sin brings its own punishment, and virtue its own reward, are pretty sure to be unnatural. If, however, such delimentions were really edifying in their tendency, a slight departure from artistic truth might be patiently endured. But like all pious frauds, it can only succeed if it is not found out; and in this case the unreality is too transparent. The fallacy of an argument in which the arguer is allowed to invent his own premisses is patent even to a very simple-minded logician. Anybody can see that vice might just as well have been rewarded, and virtue punished, if Mr. Wickliffe Lane had only willed it so. Nobody is won over to the cause of virtue by moral lessons of that kind, and some readers may possibly rush rashly to the illogical conclusion that all moral lessons are as fallacious as those that are preached in novels. It is not worth while to disfigure both a good story and a good sermon by dressing them in each other's clothes. But this is a tendency which, where there is genuine power, wears off by practice; and such, we cannot doubt, will be the case with the very clever author of My Good for Nothing Brother.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

We beg leave to state that it is impossible for us to return rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

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Under the Manacement of Miss Louiss Pyne and Mr. W. Harrison. Sole Lessees.
On Monday and Briday, RUY BLAS. On Tuesday and Thursday, LOVE'S TRIUMPH. On
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LIGHT, or the DENGENT of MORN'S FIRST RAY. Invented and Painted by W. Calcott.
A Morning Performance of the Fantonine every Wednesday at Two o'clock, to which
Children are admitted at half-price, except to pit, is. 6d. Commence every evening at Ten
minutes to Seven.

minutes to Seven.

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HALL...On Monday Evening next, January 12...Executants, MM. Chas. Hallé,
Faitti, Sainton, Hes, Webb. Lazarus, Fratien, Ward, Severn. Vocalists, Mdme. Sainton,
Delby and Mr. Winn. Convictor, Mr. Benediel. Soft-stallalis, fat, Effectory, St., Admission, it. HANOVER SQUARE ROOMS.—Mr. HENRY LESLIE'S CHOIR.—The Programme of the First Concert, on Wednesday Evening, January 14, Stalls for the Season of Five Concerts, One Guines. Reserved Box Seats, numbered for the Season, Half a Guinea. Immediate application for the start Tickets is necessary, as only Sixty can be issued. Single Tickets, 5.o., 26. d., and is.

Butter Dickets is necessary, as only Sixty can be issued. Single Tickets, a., 26. d., and its.

SONGS of SCOTLAND.—Egyptian Hall.—TO-NIGHT at

Eight, and Every Evening except saturds), and on saturdar Afterson at Thes. Mr.

KEN Eight, and Every Evening except saturds), and on saturdar Afterson at Thes. Mr.

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KEN Eight, and Every Evening except saturds in the saturdar Afterson at Thes. Mr.

KEN Eight, and Every Evening of Footmanne, his ENTERTAINMENT on the SONGS of SCOTLAND,
including Selections from the "Noctes Ambrosianas," with the incidental "Audi Scots Sange."

Stalls, S. i. Area, 28. at Admission, is. 1 a few Fauteuils, S.; to be obtained at Mr.

CHRISTY'S MINSTRELS, Every Night at Eight, and

Wednesday Afternoon at Three, in St. James's Hall. Proprietor, W. F. COLLINS.

Salls, S.; i. Area, 28.; Gallery, is. Tickets at Chappell & Co.'s, 50 New Bond Street, and at Austin', 78 Piccadilly.

MR. and MRS. GERMAN REED, with MR. JOHN PARRY, 4.14. will appear Every Evening (except Saturday) at 3, and Saturday Morning at 3 o'clock, in THE FAMILY LEGEND. After which, Mr. JOHN PARBY will introduce a new domestic scene entitled MRS. ROSELEAF'S LITTLE EVENING PARTY.—Royal Gallery

MR. EDMUND YATES'S INVITATIONS to EVENING PART L-BOYAL BLANK PART L-BOYAL GRANK PART L-BO

The Box Office is open daily from Eleven tull Five octoox.

MR. JOHN LEECH'S GALLERY of SKETCHES in OIL, from Subjects in "PUXCH," with several new Pictures not hitherto exhibited, is open every day from Ten till Dusk, illuminated with gas, at the Auction Mart, near the Bank. Admission, one Shilling. Will close on the 16th met.

SOCIETY of PAINTERS in WATER COLOURS.—Winter Exhibition of Sketches and Studies by the Members. Now open, at their Gallery, shall Mail East, from Nine till Dusk. Admission, One Shilling.

JOS. J. JENKINS, Secretary.

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Principal—The Very Rev. the DEAN of WESTMINSTER.

Lady Resident—Miss PARRY.

Committee of Professors.

W. STERNDALE BENNETT, Mus. D.

Rev. T. A. COCK.

E. FUSCO, B. A.

Rev. FRANCIS GARDEN, M.A.

WILLIAM HUGHES, F.R.G.S.

JOHN HULLAII.

The Classes for the Lent Term will meet on Monday, January 19. Individual Instruction is given in Vocal Music by Mr. G. Benson, and in Instrumental by Mesers. Journell, Jay, and O. May. Special Conversation Classes are formed in French, German, and Ralate. Arrance-williams, at the College Office.

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Calishetical Instruction.

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Experience of Pupils in the intervals of Lessons.

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This INSTITUTION, for RESIDENT FUPILS only, will be RE-OPENED, at the close of the Vacation, on FRIDAY, January 16.

Terms for Junior and Senior Pupils, Lists of Lectures, ac., may be obtained of the Principal, Belsize Fax.

CLIFTON COLLEGE.—In January 1863, there will be an Election to Two Scholarships, of £35 each per annum, tenable for two years—one for Boys, under fifteen, the other for Hoys under thirtee. The Examination will commence on Wednesday, January 38. For information as to the kind of Examination, application to be made to the Rev. J. Paravrac, Head Master.

CHELTENHAM COLLEGE.—JUVENILE DEPARTMENT.

At the close of the Christmas Vacation, a JUVENILE DEPARTMENT will be OPENED under a Head Master, subject to the supervision and control of the Principal.

The Studies of this Department will be so are naged. The Studies of this Department will be so are naged. The Studies of this Department will be so are naged. The studies of this Department will be so are naged. The studies of this Department, and a separate Playground divided off for their exclusive use. A Juvenile Boys may be admitted to this Department, and a separate Playground divided off for their exclusive use. A Juvenile Boys may be admitted to this Department at the age of 7; none may leave it before 11, or remain in it after 13, without Special Permission from the Principal.

Boys can be Nominated and Admitted to this Department on the same Terms as to the Lower Classes of the College. except that Nominations may be obtained from the Council at 21 per samum. All Applications to be made to the Secretary, w. ALFRED BARRY, Principal.

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A HEAD MASTER will be required, on February 1, to Superintent this Department under the general control and supervision of the Frincipal. The Salary is fixed at £150 per annum, and £60 after the first year (if the number of lioys in the Department exceeds 100), with permission to open a Jouenile during the in full orders, and have had previous experiment of Juvenile tution.

Applications to be made, enclosing copies of Testimonials, to the Rev. A. Banav, Demmark Hill, London, S. All information as to the College may be obtained from the Secretary, b. MALVERN PROPRIETARY COLLEGE (Limited).

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Testimonials must be sent in to the Hon. Secretary, L. Syummas, Eq., M.D., Malvern, on or
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moderate cost, boys intended for officers in the Merobant Navy.

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The course of two years is as thus the pupils save a year in passing their examinations to be officers, and require to be at sea only three, instead of four years, before doing so. Terms of Admission, Thirty-five Guineas per Ansum.

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Studies resumed Monday, January 10, 1823.

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of Cambridge.

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Fig. Mayor of Sheffield, John Brown, Esq.

The Master Cutter of Sheffield, John Brown, Esq.

The Master Cutter of Sheffield, John Brown, Esq.

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tendence of the Rev. G. B. Alkinson, Francipal of the Courses of Lectures, and all other information, arrangements for boarding, &c., may be obtained by application to the Director.

The School will open in the First Week in Fibruary, 1863.

OAKHAM SCHOOL, RUTLAND, re-opens February 4.

There are Twelve open Exhibitions of 40 per annum each, and many other University advantages. For terms, &c., apply to the Head Master.

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The Course of Instruction is the same generally as that of the principal Public Schools, especial attention being paid to Writing, Arithmetic, and Modern Languages. Puplic are admitted between the Ages of Nine and Piffeen. The Fees range from 14 to 431 per Annus. The School will re-open on February 3. For further particulars apply to the Head Master, or to WILLIAM JACKSON, Eds., Jun., 2000. Sec., 31 Feaviors, Sevent (Austro).

MILL HILL SCHOOL, HENDON, N.W., will re-open M. Cooms, Eq., Claphan Common; the Rev. Dr. Hennoun Res., Lephan Common; the Rev. Dr. Hennounk, Head Moster; or the Nev. Trouan Res., at the bellook. THE CLAPHAM GRAMMAR SCHOOL will re-open on Thursday, January 29. Head Master, Rev. Alphad Whitzer, M.A., M.D., F.R.A.S., of St. John's College, Cambridge, Professor of Mathematics in the late Royal Military College, Addiscombe.

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B.A. Cambridge, prepare Candidate for Woodwich, Sandhurst, and for Direct Commissions. Recommended by General Sir John Burgoyne, Bart, G.C.B., R.E., Lieut.-General
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